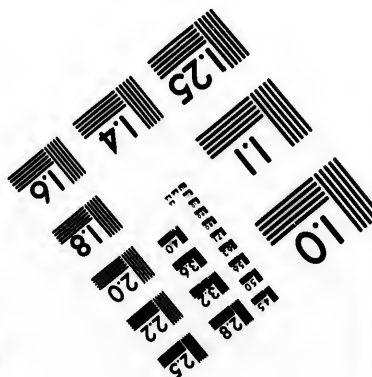
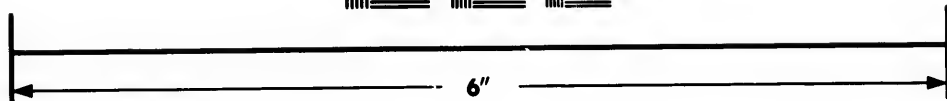
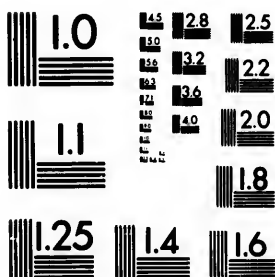


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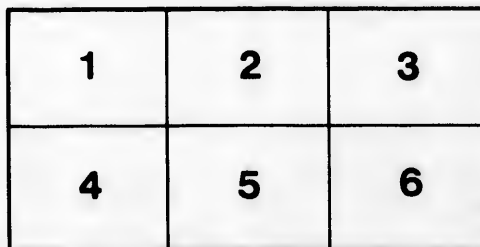
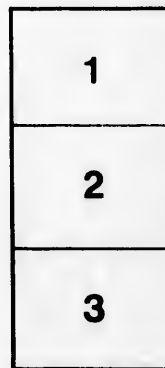
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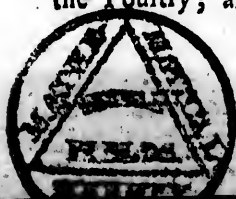
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F R A N C E.

HAVING gone over the British isles, we shall now return to the continent, beginning with the extensive and mighty kingdom of France, being the nearest to England; though part of Germany and Poland lies to the northward of France.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | | |
|-------------|----------|---------------------------------------|
| Miles. | Degrees. | |
| Length 600 | } | between { 5 and 8 west and east long. |
| Breadth 500 | | 42 and 51 north lat. |

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by the English channel and the Netherlands, on the north; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, east; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divides it from Spain, south; and by the Bay of Biscay, west.

DIVISIONS.] This kingdom is divided, and the dimensions of the several parts distinctly specified in the following table, by Mr. Templeman.

| Countries Names. | Square Miles. | Length | Breadth | Chief Cities. |
|--------------------|---------------|--------|---------|---------------|
| France. | | | | |
| Orleanois | 22,500 | 230 | 180 | Orleans |
| Guienne | 12,800 | 216 | 120 | Bordeaux |
| Gaigoigne | 8,800 | 125 | 90 | Aux or Augh |
| Languedoc | 13,175 | 200 | 115 | Thoulouse |
| Lyonnois | 12,500 | 175 | 130 | Lyon |
| Champagne | 10,000 | 140 | 110 | Rheims |
| Bretagne | 9,100 | 170 | 105 | Rennes |
| Papists { Normandy | 8,200 | 155 | 85 | Rouen |
| Provence | 6,800 | 95 | 92 | Aix |
| Burgundy | 6,700 | 150 | 86 | Dijon |
| Dauphine | 5,820 | 107 | 90 | Grenoble |
| Isle of France | 5,200 | 100 | 85 | PARIS |
| French Compte | 4,000 | 100 | 60 | Besancon |
| Picardy | 3,650 | 120 | 87 | Amiens |
| Rouffillon | 1,400 | 50 | 44 | Perpignan |
| Total— | 131,095 | | | |

The French Netherlands will be found under the title Netherlands.

NAME AND CLIMATE.] France took its name from the Franks, a German nation, who conquered the Gauls, the antient inhabitants. By its situation, it is the most compact kingdom perhaps in the world, and well fitted for every purpose both of power and commerce; and since the beginning of the 15th century, their inhabitants have fully availed themselves of their natural advantages. The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the kingdom, is in general mild and wholesome; but some late authors think it is not near so salubrious as is pretended; and it must be acknowledged, that the French have been but too successful in giving the inhabitants of Great Britain false prepossessions in favour of their own country. It must be owned, that their weather is more clear and settled than in England. In the northern provinces, however, the winters are more intensely cold, and the inhabitants not so well supplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excellent soil, which produces corn, wine, oil, and almost every luxury of life. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than those of England; but neither their pasturage or tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts burn up the ground, so that it has no verdure, and the soil barely produces as much rye and chefnuts, as serve to subsist the poor inhabitants; but the chief misfortune attending the French soil is, that the inhabitants having but a precarious security in their own property, do not apply themselves sufficiently to cultivation and agriculture. Nature, however, has done wonders for them, and both animal and vegetable productions are found there in vast plenty.

The French have of late endeavoured to supply the loss arising from their precarious title to their lands, by instituting academies of agriculture, and proposing premiums for its improvement, as in England; but those expedients, however successful they may be in particular instances, can never become of national utility in any but a free country, where the husbandman is sure of enjoying the fruit of his labour. It must at the same time be admitted, that the French exceed perhaps the English themselves in the theory of agriculture. No nation is better supplied than France is with wholesome springs and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent use, by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniencies of life. I shall afterwards speak of their canals and mineral waters.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are, The Alps, which divide France from Italy. The Pyrenees,

Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain. Vauze, which divides Lorraine from Burgundy and Alsace. Mount Jura, which divides Franche Comte, from Switzerland. The Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mount Dor, in the province of Auvergne.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in France are, the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its course north and north-west, being, with all its windings, from its source to the sea, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone flows on south-west to Lyons, and then runs on due south till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its course, first, north-east, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, soon after its rise, runs to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English channel at Havre. To these we may add, the Soane, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which rises near Havre de Grace, runs in and discharges itself in the Bay of Biscay. The Rhine, which rises in Swisserland, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the Sarte in its passage. The Somme, which runs north-west through Picardy, and falls into the English channel below Abbeville. The Var, which rises in the Alps, and runs south, dividing France from Italy, falls into the Mediterranean west of Nice. The Adour runs from east to west, through Gascoigne, and falls into the Bay of Biscay below Bayonne.

The vast advantage, both in commerce and conveniency, which arises to France from those rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and compleated in 1680: it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the speedier passage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on at an immense expence, for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not answered that purpose. By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Yper, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of 18 leagues, to the immense benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpressibly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Aligre, which the vulgar report to be bottomless. There is another at Issoire, in Auvergne; and one at La Besse, in which if you throw a stone, it causes a noise like thunder.

**MINERAL WATERS AND RE- } The waters of Bareges,
MARKABLE SPRINGS. } which lie near the borders**
of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred to all the others of France, for the recovery of health. The best judges think, however, that the cures performed by them, are more owing to their accidental success, with some great persons, and the salubrity of the air and soil, than the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach, cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the stone. At Bagucis, not far from Bareges, are several wholesome minerals and baths, to which people resort as to the English baths, at spring and autumn. Forges in Normandy is celebrated for its mineral waters, and those of St. Amand cure the gravel and obstructions. It would be endless to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, therefore I must omit them, as well as many remarkable springs: but there is one near Aigne in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noise like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taste, but has a poisonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die instantly.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Languedoc is said to contain veins of gold and silver. Alsace has mines of silver and copper, but they are too expensive to be wrought. Alabaster, black marble, jasper, and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Britany abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. At Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which serves for melting of metals, and for dying, particularly the best drab-cloths; and in the province of Anjou are several quarries of fine white stone. Some excellent turquoises (the only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-stone open all over the kingdom.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO- } France abounds in
DUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } excellent roots, which**
are more proper for soups than those of England. As to all kinds of seasoning and sallads, they are more plentiful, and in some places better than in England; they being, next to their vines, the chief object of their culture. The province of Gastmois produces great quantities of saffron. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gascony, and other provinces

provinces of France, are so well known, that they need only to be mentioned. It is sufficient to observe, that though they differ very sensibly in their taste and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly those of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontacke, Hermitage, and Frontiniac; and there are few constitutions, be they ever so valetudinary, to which some one or other of them is not adapted. Oak, elm, ash, and other timber common in England, is found in France; but it is said, that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of salt is made at Rhee, and about Rochfort on the coast of Saintoign. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which when burnt makes excellent pot-ashes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at present far inferior to the English both in the management and disposition of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, excepting wolves. Their horses, black cattle, and sheep, are far inferior to the English; nor is the wool of their sheep so fine. The hair and skin of the chamois, or mountain goats, are more valuable than those of England. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and those of England, but that the former is not so well served, even on their sea-coasts, with salt-water fish.

FORESTS.] The chief forests of France are those of Orleans, which contain 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, ash, &c. and the forest of Fontainebleau near as large; and near Morchisnoir is a forest of tall, strait timber, of 4000 trees. Besides these, large numbers of woods, some of them deserving the name of forests, lie in different provinces; but too remote from sea carriage to be of national utility.

| | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------|
| POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } | } If we believe |
| CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } | |

some French writers, France contains 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but the calculation is certainly overstrained by at least 4,000,000, and of the remainder near 200,000 are ecclesiastics. I shall not dispute the populousness of France in former times, but it is certain that the number of her natives, and those too the most useful to the public, have, during the last and present century, been greatly reduced, first, by the revocation * of the edict of Nantes,

* In the year 1568, Henry IV. who was a Protestant, and justly styled the Great, after fighting his way to the crown of France, passed the famous edict of Nantes, which secured

Nantes, by Lewis XIV. and other religious persecutions; secondly, by her perpetual wars; thirdly, by her emigrants to her colonies. Some writers make perhaps the numbers too low, when they fix them at 13,000,000. It is evident however that there is a great defect of population in the interior provinces.

The French, in their persons, are rather lower than their neighbours; but they are well proportioned and active, and more free than other nations in general from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their sprightly wit than personal beauty; the peasantry in general are remarkably ordinary, and are best described by being contrasted with women of the same ranks in England. The nobility and gentry accomplish themselves in the academical exercises of dancing, fencing, and riding; in the practice of which, they excel all their neighbours in skill and gracefulness. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry have now left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-saddle, and monstrous curb-bridle, in that exercise; and accommodate themselves to the English manner. The landlords are as jealous of their game as they are in England, and equally niggardly of it to their inferiors. A few of the French princes of the blood, and nobility, are more magnificent in their palaces and equipages than any of the English; but the other ranks of life are despicable, when compared to the riches, elegance, and opulence, not only of the English nobility and gentry in general, but to the middling people.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the subject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant character, and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have derived great utility from a national weakness. It supports them under misfortunes, and impells them to actions to which true courage inspires other nations. This character, however, is conspicuous only in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers, for the common soldiers of France have few or no ideas of heroism. Hence it has been observed, with great justice, of the French and English, that the French officers will lead, if their soldiers will follow, and the English soldiers will follow, if their officers will lead. This same principle of vanity is of admirable use to the government, because

secured to the Protestants the free exercise of their religion, but this edict was revoked by Lewis XIV. which, with the succeeding persecutions, drove that people to England, Holland, and other Protestant countries, where they established the silk manufactures, to the great prejudice of their own country.

because the lower ranks, when they see their superiors elated, as in the time of the last war with England, under the most disgraceful losses, never think that they are unfortunate; thence proceeds the passive submission of the French under all their calamities.

The French affect freedom and wit, but their conversation is commonly confined to fashionable dresses and diversions. Their diversions are much the same with those of the English, but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair, degenerates into gross foppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting of indecent freedoms; but the seeming levities of both sexes are seldom attended with that criminality which, to people not used to their manners, they seem to indicate; nor are the husbands so indifferent as we are apt to imagine, about the conduct of their wives. The French are excessively credulous and litigious; but of all people in the world, they bear adversity and reduction of circumstances with the best grace; but in prosperity they are intolerably insolent, vain, arbitrary and imperious. An old French officer is an entertaining and instructive companion, and indeed the most rational species of all the French gentry.

The French may be characterized as being well mannered, rather than well bred. They are indiscriminately complaisant and officious, but they seldom know how to adjust their behaviour to the situation and character of those they converse with. All is a repeated round of politeness, which for want of discernment becomes affected, often ridiculous, and always disgustful to sentimental people.

The French have been censured for insincerity; but this is a fault which they possess in no greater degree than their neighbours, and the imputation is generally owing to their excess of civility, which throws a suspicious light upon their candour. The French, in private life, have just as much virtue as other European nations, and have given as many proofs of generosity, and disinterestedness; but this is far from being the character of their government, which has prepossessed the English against the whole nation, and when the French are no longer formidable, they will be no longer thought faithless.

It is doing the French no more than justice to acknowledge that they have given a polish to the ferocious manners and even virtues of other nations. They have long possessed the lead in taste, fashion, and dress, but it seems now to be in the wane, and they begin to think, that the English are not barbarians. This alteration of opinion has not however taken
its

its rise from their wits, their learned men, their courtiers, nor the middle ranks of life. The superior orders of men in France are of a very different cast from those below them, They see with indignation the frivolousness of their court, and however complying they may appear in public, when retired, they keep themselves sacred from its follies. Independent by their rank and fortunes, they think and act for themselves. They are open to conviction, and examine things to the bottom. They saw during the late war the management of their armies, their finances and fleets, with silent indignation, and their researches were favourable to the English. The conclusion of the late peace, and the visits which they have since paid to England, have improved that good opinion, the courtiers themselves have fallen in with it, and what some years ago would have been thought incredible, people of fashion in France now study the English language, and imitate them in their customs, amusements, dress, and buildings. They both imitate and admire our writers; the names of Milton, Pope, Addison, Hume, Robertson, Richardson, and many others of the last and present century, are sacred among the French of any education; and to say the truth, the writings of such men have equally contributed, with our military reputation, to raise the name of Great Britain, to that degree, in which it has been held of late by foreign nations, and to render our language more universal, and even a necessary study among foreign nobility. But we cannot quit this article of the manners and customs of the French, without giving a more minute view of some distinguishing peculiarities observable among that whimsical people in private life, and this from the remarks of an ingenious and well informed writer of the present age.

The natural levity of the French, says he, is reinforced by the most preposterous education, and the example of a giddy people, engaged in the most frivolous pursuits. A Frenchman is by some priest or monk taught to read his mother tongue, and to say his prayers in a language he does not understand. He learns to dance and to fence by the masters of those sciences. He becomes a compleat connoisseur in dressing hair, and in adorning his own person, under the hands and instructions of his barber and valet de chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or the fiddle, he is altogether irresistible. But he piques himself upon being polished above the natives of any other country, by his conversation with the fair sex. In the course of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns like a parrot, by rote, the whole

whole circle of French compliments, which are a set of phrases, ridiculous even to a proverb; and these he throws out indiscriminately to all women without distinction, in the exercise of that kind of address, which is here distinguished by the name of gallantry. It is an exercise, by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in consequence of his mingling with the females from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their customs and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thousand little offices, which are overlooked by other men, whose time hath been spent in making more valuable acquisitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady's bedchamber, while she is in bed, reaches her whatever she wants, airs her shift, and helps to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the distribution of her patches, and advises where to lay on the paint. If he visits her when she is dressed, and perceives the least impropriety in her coëffure, he insists upon adjusting it with his own hands. If he sees a curl, or even a single hair amiss, he produces his comb, his scissars, and pomatum, and sets it to rights with the dexterity of a professed friseur. He squires her to every place she visits, either on business or pleasure; and, by dedicating his whole time to her, renders himself necessary to her occasions. In short, of all the coxcombs on the face of the earth, a French *petit maitre* is the most impertinent; and they are all *petite maitres*, from the marquis who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the *garçon barbier*, (barber's boy) covered with meal, who struts with his hair in a long queue, and his hat under his arm.

A Frenchman will sooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the soldiers in France wear a long queue; and this ridiculous foppery has descended, as I said before, to the lowest class of people. The boy who cleans shoes at the corner of a street, has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar who drives an ass, wears his hair *en queue*, though, perhaps, he has neither shirt nor breeches.

I shall only mention one custom more, which seems to carry human affectation to the very farthest verge of folly and extravagance: that is, the manner in which the faces of the ladies are primed and painted. It is generally supposed that part of the fair sex, in some other countries, make use of *yard* and *vermilion* for very different purposes, namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I shall not enquire whether it is just and honest to impose in this manner on mankind; if it is not honest, it may be allowed to be artful.

artful and politic, and shews, at least, a desire of being agreeable. But to lay it on as the fashion in France prescribes to all the ladies of condition, who indeed cannot appear without this badge of distinction, is to disguise themselves in such a manner as to render them odious and detestable to every spectator who has the least relish left for nature and propriety. As for the *pard*, or *white*, with which their necks and shoulders are plaistered, it may be in some measure excusable, as their skins are naturally brown, or fallow; but the *rouge*, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to the eyes, without the least art or dexterity, not only destroys all distinction of features, but renders the aspect really frightful, or at least conveys nothing but ideas of disgust and aversion. Without this horrible mask no married lady is admitted at court, or in any polite assembly, and it is a mark of distinction which none of the lower classes dare assume.

DRESS.] The French dress of both sexes is so well known that it is needless to expatiate upon them here; but, indeed, their dress in cities and towns is so variable, that it is next to impossible to describe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their constantly changing their fashions is of infinite service to their manufactures. With regard to the English, they possess one capital superiority, which is, that the cloaths of both sexes, and their ornaments, are at least one third cheaper.

When a stranger arrives in Paris he finds it necessary to send for the taylor, peruquier, hatter, shoemaker, and every other tradesman concerned in the equipment of the human body. He must even change his buckles, and the form of his ruffies: and, though at the risk of his life, suit his cloaths to the mode of the season. For example, though the weather should be ever so cold, he must wear his *habit d'été*, or *demi-saison*, without presuming to put on a warm dress before the day which fashion has fixed for that purpose; and neither old age nor infirmity will excuse a man for wearing his hat upon his head, either at home or abroad. Females are, if possible, still more subject to the caprices of fashion. All their saks and negligees must be altered and new trimmed. They must have new caps, new laces, new shoes, and their hair new cut. They must have their taffaties for the summer, their flowered silks for the spring and autumn, their sattins and damasks for winter. The men too must provide themselves with a camblet suit trimmed with silver for spring and autumn, with silk cloaths for summer, and cloth laced with gold, or velvet for winter; and he must wear his bag-wig *a la pigeon*. This variety

riety of dress is absolutely indispensable for all those who pretend to any rank above the meer vulgar; all ranks, from the king downwards, use powder; and even the rabble, according to their abilities, imitate their superiors in the fripperies of fashion. The common people of the country, however, still retain, without any material deviation, the old fashioned modes of dress, the large hat and most enormous jack-boots, with suitable spurs, and this contrast is even perceivable a few miles from Paris. In large cities, the clergy, lawyers, physicians, and merchants, generally dress in black; and it has been observed, that the French nation, in their modes of dress, are in some measure governed by commercial circumstances.

RELIGION.] The religion of France is Roman Catholic, in which their kings have been so constant, that they have obtained the title of Most Christian; and the pope, in his Bull, gives the king of France the title of Eldest Son of the Church. The Gallican church has more than once attempted to shake off the yoke of the Popes, and made a very great progress in the attempt during the reign of Lewis XIV. but it was defeated by the secret bigotry of that prince, who, while he was bullying the pope, was inwardly trembling under the power of the Jesuits, a set that is now exterminated from that kingdom. Though the French clergy are more exempt than some others from the papal authority, their church confining the pope's power entirely to things relating to salvation, yet they are in general great enemies to any thing that looks like reformation in religion; and possessed as they are of immense property, there must be a thorough coalition in opinion between the king and his parliaments, before any ecclesiastical reformation can take place; a prospect which seems at present very distant, notwithstanding the differences between the pope and his most Christian majesty. In the southern parts of France, the clergy and magistrates are as intolerant as ever, and the persecutions of the protestants, or, as they are called, Hugonots, who are very numerous in those provinces, still continue. In short, the common people of France discover no disposition towards a reformation in religion, which, if ever it takes place, must probably be effected by the spirit of the parliaments. I shall not enter into the antiquated disputes between the Molinists and the Jansenists, nor the different sects of Quietists and Bourignons, that prevail among the Roman Catholics themselves, nor into the disputes that prevail between the parliament and clergy about the bull Unigenitus, which advances the pope's power above that of the crown.

crown. The state of religion in France is a strong proof of the passive disposition of the natives, and the bigotry of their kings, who, in complaisance to the pope, have depopulated their kingdom, as I have already hinted, of its most useful inhabitants. It must at the same time be owned, that the Hugonots, while they subsisted in a manner as a separate state within France, did not shew any remarkable proofs of their moderation, either in religion or government.

ARCHBISHOPRICS, BISHOPRICS, &c.] In the whole kingdom there are 17 archbishops, 113 bishops, 770 abbies for men, 317 abbies and priories for women, besides a great number of lesser convents, and 250 commanderies of the order of Malta; but many of the abbies and nunneries have been lately suppressed, and the revenues seized by the king. The ecclesiastics of all sorts are computed at near 200,000, and their revenues at about six millions sterling. The king nominates all archbishops, bishops, abbots, and priors, and can tax the clergy without a papal licence or mandate: accordingly, not many years since, he demanded the twentieth penny of the clergy, and, to ascertain that, required them to deliver in an inventory of their estates and incomes; to avoid which, they voluntarily made an offer of the annual sum of twelve millions of livres, over and above the usual free gift, which they pay every five years.

The archbishop of Lyons is count and primate of France. The archbishop of Sens, is primate of France and Germany. The archbishop of Paris, is duke and peer of the realm; and the archbishop of Rheims, is duke and peer, and legate of the holy see.

LANGUAGE.] One of the wisest measures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every proposal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He succeeded so far as to render it the most universal of all the living tongues, a circumstance that tended equally to his greatness and his glory, for his court and nation thereby became the school of the arts, sciences, and politeness. The French language, at present, is chiefly composed of words radically derived from the Latin, with many German derivatives, introduced by the Franks. It is at present on the decay, its corner stones, fixed under Lewis XIV. are as it were loosened; and in the present mode of writing and expressing themselves, the modern French abandon that grammatical standard, which alone can render a language classical and permanent.

As to the properties of the language, they are undoubtedly greatly inferior to the English, but they are well adapted to subjects

subjects void of elevation or passion. It is well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common conversation.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows: *Nôtre Père qui es aux cieus, ton nom soit sanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté soit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'huy notre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous nos offences, comme nous pardonnons a ceux qui nous ont offencez. Et ne nous indui point en tentation, mais nous delivre du mal: car a toi est le regne, la puissance, & la gloire aux siècles des siècles. Amen.*

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The French, like the other nations of Europe, were for many centuries immersed in barbarity. The first learning they began to acquire, was not of that kind which improves the understanding, corrects the taste, or regulates the affections. It consisted in a subtle and quibbling logic, which was more adapted to pervert than to improve the faculties. But the study of the Greek and Roman writers, which first arose in Italy, diffused itself among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary pursuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in France, whose labours are well known, and highly esteemed all over Europe. The two Stephens, in particular, are names which every real scholar mentions with respect. It was not, however, till the seventeenth century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The Academie Françoisé was formed for this purpose; and though their labours, considered as a body, were not so successful as might have been expected, some particular academicians have done great service to letters. In fact, literary copartnerhips are seldom very successful. Of this we have a remarkable example in the present case. The Academy published a dictionary for improving the French language: it was universally despised. Furetieres, a single academician, publishes another: it meets with universal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Augustus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the pensions he bestowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above 12,000 l. per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterprises, upon which he expended so many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign, are too numerous to be mentioned. Their tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, the first distinguished for tenderness, the second for majesty, and both

for the strength and justness of their painting, the elegance of their taste, and their strict adherence to the rules of the drama, are, next to the Greek tragedians, the most perfect masters in this species of writing. Moliere would have exhausted the subjects of comedy, were they not every where inexhaustible, and particularly in France. In works of satire, and in criticism, Boileau, though a close imitator of the ancients, is not deficient in genius. But France has not as yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the same extensive and universal kind with Shakespeare, equally fitted for the gay and the serious, the humorous and the sublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our superiors: Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Massillon, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection, which we may approach to, but never can surpass. The genius, however, of their religion and government, is extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the most useful branches of philosophy. All the establishments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of science, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, whose interest it is to keep mankind ignorant in matters of religion and morality; and the influence of the court and ministry, who have an equal interest in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every sound principle of government. The French have not therefore so many good writers on moral, religious, or political subjects, as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced some great men who do honour to humanity, whose career no obstacle could stop, whose freedom no government however despotic, no religion however superstitious, could curb or restrain. Who is ignorant of Pascal, or the archbishop of Cambray? few men have done more service to religion either by their writings or their lives. As for Montesquieu, he is an honour to human nature: he is the legislator of nations; his works are read in every country and language, and, wherever they go, they enlighten and enliven the human mind.

In the Belles Lettres and miscellaneous way, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers; among whom we may place D'Argens and Voltaire as the most considerable.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Descartes was the greatest philosopher in modern times. He was the first who applied algebra to the solution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical discoveries of Newton. Many of the present age are excellent mathematicians; particularly D'Alembert, who, with

with all the precision of a geometer, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the present century, the French have vied with the English in natural philosophy. Buffon would deserve to be reckoned among men of science, were he not still more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philosophy. He is to be regarded as a philosophical painter of nature; and under this view, his Natural History is the first work of its kind.

Their painters, Poussin, Le Brun, and above all Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at present to compare with them in the more noble kinds of painting; but Mr. Greuse, for portraits and conversation pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in England, or in any other nation. Their treatises on ship-building and engineering stand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the English. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our superiors in architecture, though we now bid fair for surpassing them in this art.

We shall conclude this head with observing, that the French have now finished the Cyclopedic, or general dictionary of arts and sciences, which was drawn up in 26 volumes in folio, under the direction of messieurs D'Alembert and Diderot, and is the most complete collection of human knowledge we are acquainted with.

UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC COLLEGES.] These literary institutions have received an irreparable loss by the expulsion of the jesuits, who made the languages, arts, and sciences, their particular study, and taught them all over France. It is not within my plan to describe the different governments and constitutions of every university or public college in France; but they are in number twenty-eight; as follow; Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Besançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, Fleche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Point Mouson, Richlieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg, Toulouse, Tournois, and Valence.

ACADEMIES.] There are eight academies in Paris, namely, three literary ones; that called the French Academy, that of Inscriptions, and that of the Sciences; one of painting and sculpture, one of architecture, and three for riding the great horse and other military exercises.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Few countries, if we
 NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } except Italy, can boast
 Vol. II. B of

of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and consequently, compared to them, those of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a most curious account of the sepulchres of their kings, which have been discovered so far back as Pharamond; and some of them when broken open were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be seen triumphal arches; but the most entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones by Caius Marius and Lucatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took vast delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and sacred, some of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itself. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found at Chalons, and likewise at Vienne. Nismes, however, exhibits the most valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raised in the Augustan age by the Roman colony of Nismes, to convey a stream of water between two mountains, for the use of that city, and is as fresh to this day as Westminster-bridge: it consists of three bridges, or tires of arches one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other stupendous aqueducts, to the ignorance of the ancients that all streams will rise as high as their heads. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Nismes, but the chief is the temple of Diana, whose vestiges are still remaining. The amphitheatre, which is thought to be the finest and most entire of the kind of any in Europe; but above all, the house erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maison Carrée. The architecture and sculpture of this building is so exquisitely beautiful that it enchants even the most ignorant, and it is still entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havoc of war. At Paris may be seen the remains of the palace of Thermæ, which was built by the emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, about the year 356, after the same model as the baths of Dioclesian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large salloon. It is fabricated of a kind of mastic, the composition of which is not now known, intermixed with small square pieces of free stone and bricks.

At Arles in Provence is to be seen an obelisk of oriental granite, which is 52 feet high, and 7 feet diameter at the base, and all but one stone. Roman temples are frequent in France. The most particular are in Burgundy and Guienne, and other places

places besides the neighbourhood of Nismes, contain magnificent ruins of aqueducts. The passage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of massy silver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty one pounds, containing the story of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coeval with that great general. It would be endless to recount the different monuments of antiquity to be found in France, particularly in the cabinets of the curious.

I have already mentioned several remarkable springs and mountains which may be considered as natural curiosities. Some of the modern works of art, particularly the canals, have been already mentioned, and some subterraneous passages and holes, especially at St. Aubin in Britany and Niont in Dauphiny, are really stupendous.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] These are numerous in France, of which we shall mention only Paris, Lisle, and their principal sea-ports, Brest and Toulon.

Lisle, in French Flanders, is thought to be the most regular and strongest fortification in Europe, and was the masterpiece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garrisoned with above 10,000 regulars; and for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of silk, cambrick, and camblents, are very considerable; and its inhabitants amount to about 100,000. Every reader is acquainted with the history of Dunkirk, which the French have been obliged to demolish, but is still a thorn in the side of the English, by being a harbour for their smugglers. The rest of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures.

Moving southward, we come to the Isle of France; the capital of which, and the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been so often described, that it may appear superfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference, which it by no means deserves, to all the capitals in the world, in every respect, not excepting even population. Many of the English have been imposed upon in this respect; and I have already hinted at the reasons, particularly the computing from the births and burials within the bills of mortality, which exclude the most populous parishes about London. Another mistake lies in computing from births and marriages. The number of dissenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not register the births of their children, is amazing; and many of the poorer sort cannot afford the expence of such registration. Another

peculiarity existing in London is, that most of the Londoners, who can afford the expence, when they find themselves consumptive, or otherwise indisposed, retire into the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris therefore, where the registers are more exact and accessible to the poor, and where the religion and the police are more uniform and strict, is far more easily ascertained than that of London; and by the best accounts, it does not exceed 7 or 800,000, which is far short of the inhabitants of London and the contiguous parishes.

Paris is divided into three parts; the city, the university, and that which was formerly called the Town. The city is old Paris; the university and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public munificence than utility. Its palaces are more shewy, and some of its streets, squares, hotels, hospitals, and churches, more superbly decorated with a profusion of paintings, tapestry, images, and statues; but Paris, notwithstanding its boasted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniencies of life, and the solid enjoyments of society. Without entering into more minute disquisitions, Paris, it must be owned, is the Paradise of splendor and dissipation. The tapestry of the Gobelines * is unequalled for beauty and richness. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itself; and the institution of the French academy far exceeds any thing of the kind in England or elsewhere. The Tuilleries, the Palace of Orleans, or, as it is called, Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are shewn, the Royal palace, the King's Library, the Guild-Hall, and the hospital for invalids, are superb to the highest degree. The city of Paris is said to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French noblesse at Paris, take up a great deal of room, with their court-yards and gardens; and so do their convents and churches. The streets are very narrow, and the houses very high, many of them seven stories. The houses are built of stone, and are generally mean, even to wretchedness, owing partly to their containing a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half so large as the Thames at London: it is too far distant from the sea for the purposes of navigation, and is not furnished, as the Thames, with vessels or boats of any sort: over it are many stone and wooden bridges, which have nothing to recommend them. The streets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the appearance of

wealth

* One *Goblet*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the first who settled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the house has retained his name ever since; and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, established that valuable manufactory.

wealth and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more show than substance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of strangers, are mostly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who visit that city; and in truth, the greatest part of the trade of Paris arises from the constant succession of strangers that arrive daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This ascendancy over other nations, is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, the Gobelines, or manufacture of tapestry, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are open to the public; the cheapness of provisions, excellency of the French wines, and, above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all these advantages, however, Paris, in general, will not bear a comparison with London in the more essential circumstances of a thriving foreign and domestic trade, the cleanness of their streets, elegance of their houses, especially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which it is said disagrees with strangers, as do likewise their small wines. In the houses of Paris, most of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being sprinkled with water, and swept once a day. These brick floors, the stone stairs, the want of wainscoting in the rooms, and the thick party-walls of stone, are, however, good preservatives against fire, which seldom does any damage in this city. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are covered with tapestry or damask. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented, with tester and curtains; but bugs are here a most intolerable nuisance, which frequently oblige strangers to sleep on the floor during the excessive heat in the summer. Their shops are but poorly stored with goods; nor has their government made the provisions that are ever in its power for the comfort of the inferior ranks; its whole attention seeming to be directed to the convenience and splendor of the great. The shopkeepers and tradesmen, an indolent loitering people, seldom make their appearance before dinner in any other than a morning dress, of velvet cap, silk night-gown, and Morocco slippers; but when they intend a visit or going abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to, and hardly the resemblance of a man remains. There is a remarkable contrast between this class of people and those of the same rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do most of the drudgery business of the shop, while the husband loiters about, talks of the great, of fashions and diversions, the invincible force of their armies, and the splendor of the grand monarch. The Parisians, however, as well as the

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natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living, and to be intoxicated with liquor is considered as infamous. Bread, and all manner of butchers meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink, is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the summer season, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and small wine. The Parisians scarcely know the use of tea, but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris is so well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, seldom happen; and strangers from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever so uncommon, meet with the most polite treatment. The streets are patrolled at night by horse and foot, so judiciously stationed, that no offender can escape their vigilance. They likewise visit the publicans precisely at the hour of twelve at night, to see that the company are gone; for in Paris no liquor can be had after that time. The public roads in France are under the same excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, prevents robberies in that kingdom; but, for the same reasons, when robberies do happen, they are always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller; and indeed this is the general practice in every country of Europe, England and Scotland excepted.

The environs of Paris are very pleasant, and contain a number of fine seats, small towns, and villages; some of them being scattered on the edges of lofty mountains rising from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Versailles, which stands about 12 miles from Paris, though magnificent and expensive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furnish, is properly a collection of buildings, each of exquisite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and sublime of that art. The gardens, however, and water-works (which are supplied by means of prodigious engines across the Seine at Marli, about three miles distance) are astonishing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a stranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Meudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taste and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amusement of a luxurious court; but some of them are in a shameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanliness.

Brest is a small, but very strong town, upon the English channel, with a most spacious and fine fortified road and harbour, the best and safest in all the kingdom: yet its entrance is difficult, by reason of many rocks lying under water. At Brest is a court of admiralty, an academy for sea-affairs, docks, and magazines for all kinds of naval stores, rope-yards, store-houses,

houses, &c. inasmuch, that it may now be termed the capital receptacle on the ocean for the navy-royal of France, and is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a seaport of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour, for the reception and protection of the navy-royal. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ships pass from the one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the spacious outer harbour. Its arsenal, established also by that king, has a particular storehouse for each ship of war, its guns, cordage, &c. being separately laid up. Here are spacious workshops for blacksmiths, joiners, carpenters, locksmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk of stone is 320 toises in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular storehouses, and contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV. justly stiled the Great, the famous Colbert, a Scotsman, minister to Lewis XIV. may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illustrious a figure as a trading, as she then did as a warlike people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally possess that undaunted perseverance that is necessary for commerce and colonization, though no people, in theory, understand them better. It is to be considered, at the same time, that France, by her situation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happiness of her soil, must be always possessed of a great inland and neighbouring trade, which enriches her, and makes her the most respectable power upon the continent of Europe. I have already enumerated her natural commodities, to which may be added her manufactures of salt-petre, silk, embroidery, silver stuffs, tapestry, cambrics, lawns, fine laces, fine serges and stuffs, velvets, brocades, paper, brandy which is distilled from wine, a prodigious variety of toys, and other articles; many of which are smuggled into Great Britain, for which they are paid in ready money.

The silk manufacture was introduced into France so late as the reign of Henry IV. and in the age of his grandson, Lewis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulsion of the protestants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreased to 4000, and their silk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French pro-

testants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and stuffs, more especially at Abbeville, are said to be now little inferior to those of England and Holland, assisted by the clandestine importation of English and Irish wool, and workmen from this country.

I have already mentioned the infinite advantage arising to her inland commerce by her rivers and navigable canals.

As to her foreign trade, it may be said to extend all over the globe. It is a doubtful point whether the crown of France was a loser by its cession of Canada and part of Louisiana at the late peace. But the most valuable part of Hispaniola in the West Indies, which she possesses by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a most improveable acquisition, and the most valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the West Indies she likewise possesses the important sugar islands of Martinico and Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, St. Bartholomew, Descada, and Marigalante. Her possessions in North America since the late war, are only a small tract upon the Mississippi.

The French have still possessions in the East Indies, of which Pondicherry and Mauritius are the principal; and had their genius been more turned for commerce than war, they might have engrossed more territory and revenues than are now in possession of the English; but they over-rated both their own power and their courage, and their East India company seems now to be at its last gasp. We cannot answer for the consequences if that trade should be thrown open. They may be more fatal to England than beneficial to France. At present, (says Mr. Anderson) "her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons—To Germany, through Metz and Strasburgh—To the Netherlands, through Lisse—To Spain, (a most profitable one) through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the western ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to France's very great advantage, more especially respecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marseilles) with Turkey and Africa, has long been very considerable. The negro trade from Guinea supplies her sugar colonies, besides the gold, ivory, and drugs got from thence."

In the year 1739, France may be said to have been in the zenith of her commerce. Favoured by Spain, and dreaded by all the rest of Europe, her fleets covered the ocean, but she trusted too much to her own self-importance. Cardinal de Fleury, who then directed her affairs, took no care to protect her trade by proper naval armaments; so that the greater it was,

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was, it became the more valuable prey to the English when war broke out. It is, however, the happiness of France that her wounds are soon closed, and it is hard to say how soon she may recover all she has lost.

One great disadvantage to the commerce of France is, that the profession of a merchant is not so honourable as in England, and some other countries, so that the French nobility think it below them, which is the reason that the church, the law, and the army, are so full of that order. A great number of the cities of France have the privilege of coinage, and each of them a particular mark to distinguish their respective pieces, which, however, must be very embarrassing, especially to strangers.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] The institutions of public trading companies to Canada or New France, and the East and West Indies, formerly cost the French crown immense sums, but we know none of them now subsisting, tho' no doubt their West India trade, which is still very considerable, especially in sugar, is under proper regulations, prescribed by their councils of commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The constitution of France, in feudal times, was very unfavourable to monarchy, but the oppressions of the great landholders by degrees grew so irksome to the subjects, that they preferred the monarchical to the aristocratical government. Aristocracy however still subsisted in some degree to the beginning of the last century, chiefly through the necessity which the Hugonots or protestants were under to have princes of the blood, and men of great quality for their leaders; but Richlieu, in the time of Lewis XIII. gave it a mortal blow, and all the civil disputes in France since have been among great men for power and places, and between the kings and their parliaments, but the latter were seldom or never attended with any sanguinary effects.

The present parliament of France has no analogy with that of Great-Britain. It was originally instituted to serve as a kind of law assistant to the assembly of the states, which was composed of the great peers and landholders of the kingdom, and ever since it continued to be a law, and at last, a money court, and the members have had the courage of late to claim a kind of a negative power to the royal edicts, which they pretend can be of no validity till registered by them. His most christian majesty has often tried to invalidate their acts and to intimidate their persons; but, despotic as he is, he has never ventured to inflict any farther punishment than a slight banishment or imprisonment for their most provoking acts of disobedience.

This ridiculous situation between power and privilege shews the infirmity of the French constitution, as the king dares not punish, and his parliament will not obey; but it discovers at the same time, that the nation in general thinks the parliament its natural guardian against the court.

The kingdom of France is divided into thirty governments, over each of which is appointed a king's lieutenant-general, a superintendant, who pretty much resembles the lord lieutenants in England, but their executive powers are far more extensive. Distributive justice in France is administered by parliaments, chamber of accounts, courts of aid, presidial courts, generalities, elections, and other courts. The parliaments were in number fifteen, those of Paris, Toulouse, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Reims, Pau, Mets, Besançon, Douay, Perpignan, Colmar, and Arras. Several of these parliaments however are now united into one. The parliament of Paris is the chief, and takes the lead in all national business. It is divided into ten chambers. The grand chamber is appropriated chiefly for the trial of peers. The Tournelle Civil judges in all matters of property above the value of 1000 livres. The Tournelle Criminel receives and decides appeals from inferior courts in criminal cases. Besides these three capital chambers, there are five of requests for receiving the depositions of witnesses, and determining causes, pretty much in the same manner as our bills and answers in chancery and the exchequer.

The next court of judicature in France is the chamber of accounts, where all matters of public finances are examined, treaties of peace and grants registered, and the vassalages due from the royal fiefs are received. The chambers are in number twelve, and held in the cities of Paris, Rouen, Dijon, Nantes, Montpellier, Grenoble, Aix, Pau, Blois, Lisle, Aire, and Dole.

The third court of judicature is the court of aid, where all matters that relate to the royal revenue, and the raising of money are determined.

The fourth are the presidial courts, which are composed of judges for determining matters in appeal from magistrates of little towns and villages.

The next court are the generalities, who proportion the taxes to be raised in their districts, according to the sum that is appointed to be levied. They likewise take cognizance of matters relating to the crown lands, and certain branches of the revenue. These courts are in number twenty-three, each consisting of twenty-three persons, and they are distributed over the kingdom for the more convenient dispatch of business.

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Subject to these generalities are the courts of elections, which settle the smaller proportions of taxes that are to be paid by parishes, and inferior districts, and how much each individual in the same is to pay. This is done by a collector, who returns the assessments to the court of generalities. Besides the above courts, the French have intendants of justice, police, and finances, whose powers, when properly executed, are of great service to the peace of the community. They have likewise provosts, senescals, bailiffs, and other officers, whom we have no room to enumerate.

After the reader has been told of the excellency of the climate, and fertility of the soil in France; her numerous manufactures, and extensive commerce; her great cities, numerous towns, sea-ports, rivers and canals; the cheapness of provisions, wines, and liquors; the formidable armies and fleets she has sent forth to the terror of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their sprightliness and gaiety, he will undoubtedly conclude, that France is the most powerful nation, and her people the most opulent and happy in Europe. The reverse, however, appears to be the state of that nation at present; and we do not find that in any former period they were more rich or more happy.

True it is, that in a country so extensive and fruitful, her government finds immense resources in men and money; but, as if the French councils were directed by an evil genius, these resources, great as they are, by a wrong application have proved the ruin of the people. The most obvious causes of this national poverty took their rise from the ambition and vanity of their kings and leading men, which led them into schemes of universal dominion, the aggrandizement of their name, and the enslaving of Christendom. Their wars, which they sometimes carried on against one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the subject, under various pretences, in the name of loans, free gifts, &c. When these failed, other methods, more despotic and unwarrantable, such as raising and reducing the value of money as it suited their own purposes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppressions, were adopted, which gave the finishing blow to public credit, shook the foundations of trade, commerce, and industry, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

When we consider the motives of these wars, a desire to enslave and render miserable the nations around them, that man must be devoid of humanity whose breast is not raised with

with indignation upon the bare mention of the blood that has been spilt, the miseries and desolations that have happened, and the numerous places that have fallen a sacrifice to their ambition. It appears too plain, from their late attack upon Corsica, that their own misfortunes have not taught them wisdom or humanity, for while they thus grasp after foreign conquest, their own country exhibits a picture of misery and beggary. Their towns, a very few excepted, make a most dismal and solitary appearance. The shops are mean beyond description; and the passengers, who saunter through a labyrinth of narrow dirty streets, appear to be chiefly composed of priests and devotees, passing to or from mass, hair-dressers, and beggars. That this is the appearance of their towns and many of their cities, we may appeal to the observation of any one who has been in that kingdom. Were it possible to mention a people more indigent than these citizens; we might describe the farmers and peasantry. We have in another place mentioned the natural advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and most extensive plains produce excellent crops of corn, rye, and barley. Amidst this profusion of plenty, the farmer and his family barely exist upon the gleanings; and his cattle, which are seldom numerous, pick a subsistence in the summer months from the skirts of his fields. Here the farmer, meagre, dispirited, and depressed, exhibits a spectacle of indigence hardly credible. And to see him plowing the ground with a lean cow, an ass, and a goat yoked together, excites in an English traveller that pity to which human nature is entitled. He forgets the country while he feels for the man.

Many of the taxes and revenues in France are let out for a time to the best bidder, or, as it is there called, farmed; and these harpies, the farmers general, and their underlings, make no scruple of fleecing the people most unmercifully; and the residue, if any do remain, goes to satisfy the cravings of a numerous clergy, who in their turn are obliged, as well as the laity, to advance the government immense sums, under the names of tenths and free gifts, exclusive of which, as I have observed elsewhere, they are now taxed with a certain sum, to be paid annually. As oppressions are at present exercised in full vigour, and taxes increasing, there is the greatest probability that the bulk of the French nation will long remain that poor, unhappy, and miserable people we have been representing them, which in truth is a happy circumstance for the liberties and the peace of Europe.

REVENUES.] Nothing certain can be said concerning the revenues of a prince who can command the purses of all his sub-

subjects. In 1716, the whole specie of France in gold and silver was computed to be about seventeen millions sterling; and though the crown was then doubly a bankrupt, being in debt about 100 millions sterling, or 2,000 millions of livres, yet by laying hold of almost all the current money in the kingdom, and by arbitrarily raising or lowering the value of coins, in four years time the duke regent of France published a general state of the public debts, by which it appeared the king scarcely owed 340 millions of livres. This being done by a national robbery, we can form no idea but that of despotism of the means by which so great a reduction was effected. The French court has not since that time blushed to own, to wit towards the conclusion of the late war, and also in 1769, that their king was bankrupt; and his ministers have pursued measures pretty much similar to those practised by the regent to recruit the royal finances.

Some writers say that the annual revenues of France, ordinary and extraordinary, by the account of their own financiers, (including Lorraine) do not amount to clear six millions sterling, which is equal to the natural revenue of England alone. Though I am apt to think that this calculation of the French revenues is rather too low, and that they may be fixed at seven millions; yet we are not to form our ideas of them from the great armaments, garrisons, and fortifications maintained by the French king, because their expence is inconsiderable to him, compared to what they would be to a king of Great-Britain; and the like observation holds good in all the other departments of public expence in both kingdoms. The French themselves, it is true, magnify the revenues of their crown sometimes to twelve millions sterling, or above; but their natural vanity gives them no right to any credit on such a head; and though it is not at all impossible that the French king, in time of war, may raise such a sum upon his subjects, and discharge it by repaying them with one third of the debt, yet that is not to be accounted as a stated national revenue, and tends only to prove the misery of the subject, and the injustice of the crown.

In France taxes are raised by the taille, or land-tax. The taillon, which the nobility are obliged to pay as well as the commons, is only another land-tax; by aids, which we call customs or merchandize; by gabels, which is a tax upon salt; by a capitation, or poll-tax; by the tenths of estates and employments; by the sale of all offices of justice; by confiscations and forfeitures; and by a tenth, or free gift of the clergy, exclusive of the annual sum of twelve millions of livres, which that body has of late advanced to the king.

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MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] In time of peace, the crown of France maintains about 200,000 men, but, as I have already hinted, at a very small expence, the pay of the common men being little more than two pence half penny per day. In the time of war 400,000 have been brought to the field; but those which are raised from the militia are very indifferent troops. In the reign of Lewis XIV. the French had at one time 100 ships of the line, which was almost equal to the marine force of all Europe besides. The French have, however, at sea been generally defeated by the English. The engagement at La Hogue, which happened in 1692, gave a blow to the French marine which it never has recovered. The present king, Lewis XV. has more than once made prodigious efforts towards re-establishing his navy, but his officers and seamen are so much inferior to those of England, that he seemed during the late war to have built ships of force for the service of Great-Britain, so frequent were the captures made by the English. At present, viz. 1769, we are told, that including 50 gun ships, the French navy amounts to sixty-four ships of the line, and twenty-five frigates, besides smaller vessels.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, } The title assumed by the
NOBILITY, AND ORDERS. } French king, is simply, King
of France and Navarre; and by way of compliment he is called his Most Christian Majesty. His arms are three fleurs-de-lis, or, in a field argent, supported by two angels in the habits of Levites, having each of them a banner in his hand, with the same arms. The motto is *Lilia non laborant neque nent.*

About the year 1349 Hubert the last count of Dauphiny, being accidentally the occasion of his son's death, annexed that county to the crown of France, upon condition that the eldest son of France should be, for the time to come, stiled Dauphine.

The French nobility are of four kinds; first, the princes of the blood; secondly, dukes and counts, peers of France; thirdly, the ordinary nobility; fourthly, the nobility lately made, or those made in the present reign. The first prince of the blood, is the person who stands next to the crown after the king's sons. The knights of the Holy Ghost are ranked among the higher nobility, as are the governors and lieutenants-general of provinces.

In France there are three orders; first, that of St. Michael, instituted in 1469, and though originally composed only of thirty-six knights, was afterwards enlarged to a hundred. A
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person must be a knight of this order before he can enter into that of (secondly) the Holy Ghost, which was founded in 1578, by Henry III. and is composed of a hundred persons, exclusive of the sovereign, and conferred only on princes of the blood, and persons of the highest rank. Thirdly, the order of St. Lewis, which was instituted in the year 1693 by Lewis XIV. merely for military merit, and is worn by almost every officer, and even subalterns.

HISTORY.] The history of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly interesting to a British reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Transalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cisalpine Gaul, on the Italian side of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it soon became a desirable object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave resistance, was annexed to their empire by the invincible arms of Julius Cæsar, about forty-eight years before Christ. Gaul continued in the possession of the Romans till the downfall of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who subdued, but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks themselves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankland, were a collection of several people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of jurisprudence better than their neighbours. These Salii had a rule, which the rest of the Franks are said to have adopted, and has been by the modern Franks applied to the succession of the throne, excluding all females from the inheritance of sovereignty, and is well known by the name of the *Salic law*.

The Franks and Burgundians, after establishing their power, and reducing the original natives to a state of slavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings found it necessary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they at length assumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave rise to those numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the several parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes raised, without the concurrence of the grand council, consisting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately after the dissolution of the Roman empire, the first government in France

France seems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings extremely circumscribed and limited by the feudal barons.

The first Christian monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the best French historians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 468, from which period the French history exhibits a series of great events; and we find them generally engaged in domestic broils or in foreign wars. The first race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, whom we have often mentioned as the glory of those dark ages, became master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope; he divided his empire by will among his sons, which proved fatal to his family and posterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France; and about the year 900, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was persuaded to profess himself a Christian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France; which afterwards gave a king to England, in the person of William duke of Normandy, who subdued Harold, the last Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that nation in almost perpetual wars with England, for whom they were not an equal match, notwithstanding their numbers, and the assistance they received from Scotland.

The rage of crusading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite service to the French crown in two respects; in the first place, it carried off hundreds of thousands of its turbulent subjects, and their leaders, who were almost independent of the king: in the next, the king succeeded to the estates of numbers of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But passing over the dark ages of the crusades, their expeditions to the Holy Land, and wars with England, which have already been mentioned, we shall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe; and this brings us to the reign of Francis I. contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to excess in his own person, and had defeated the Swifs, whom till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but lost the imperial crown, Charles V. of the house of Austria,

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and king of Spain, being chosen. Francis made some dazzling expeditions against Spain; but suffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuse his power; by which he disoblighed the constable of Bourbon, the greatest of his subjects, who joined in a confederacy against him with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In a capital expedition he undertook into Italy, he was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, and obliged to agree to dishonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of those conditions was afterwards the source of many wars between him and the emperor; and he died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithstanding the variety of disagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flourishing condition. Francis I. was succeeded by his son, Henry II. who upon the whole was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and was so well served by the duke of Guise, that though he lost the battle of St. Quintin, against the Spaniards and the English, he retook Calais from the latter, who never since had any footing in France. He married his son, the Dauphin, to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this scheme he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be seen in the history of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomery.

He was succeeded by his son, Francis II. a weak, sickly, inactive prince, whose power was entirely engrossed by a prince of the house of Guise, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engrossment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a strong opposition against the government. Anthony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catharine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guises, the confederacy, who had adopted the cause of Hugonotism, was broken in pieces, when the sudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under sentence of death, for a conspiracy against the court, but the queen-mother saved him, to balance the interest of the Guises; so that the sole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her second son, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued series of dissimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guise, who was the scourge of the protestants, was treacherously murdered by one Poltrot, at the siege of Orleans; and the murderer was thought to have been instigated by the famous

Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the protestant party. Three civil wars succeeded each other. At last the court pretended to grant the Hugonots a very advantageous peace, and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre and a protestant, and the French king's sister. The heads of the protestants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all, if possible, in one night. This project proved but too successful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himself assisted in the massacre, in which the admiral fell; and it is said that about 30,000 protestants were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a fresh peace was concluded in 1573, with the protestants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had, some time before, been chosen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he, with some difficulty, escaped to France, where he took quiet possession of that crown, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time supplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had lost. The heads of the protestants could raise armies of Hugonots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were so equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the scale. A holy league was formed for the defence of the catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guise. The protestants, under the prince of Condé, and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called in the German princes to their assistance; and a sixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the duke of Alençon declaring himself lord of the Netherlands. This civil war was finished within the year, by another sham peace. The king, ever since his accession to the crown, had plunged himself into a course of infamous debauchery and religious extravagance. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, but he possessed natural good sense. He began to suspect that the proscriptions of the protestants, and the setting aside from the succession the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the holy league, was with a view to place the duke of Guise, the idol of the Roman-catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had some distant pretences. A seventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in the year 1585, both of them to the disadvantage of the protestants, through the abilities of the duke of Guise. The king thought him now so dangerous, that after inviting

him in a friendly manner to court, both he and his brother, the cardinal, were, by his majesty's orders, and, in a manner, under his eye, basely assassinated. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited the crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himself into the arms of the protestants; but while he was besieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greatest force, he was, in his turn, assassinated by one Clement, a young enthusiastic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of history are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre*, head of the house of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Main, brother to the late duke of Guise; and they drew from his cell the decrepit cardinal of Bourbon, uncle to the king of Navarre, and a Roman-catholic, to proclaim him king of France. Being strongly supported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, seemed only to make him more illustriously unfortunate; for he and his little court were sometimes without common necessaries. He was, however, personally beloved; and no objection lay against him but that of his religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, split among themselves; and the French nation, in general, being jealous of the Spaniards, who availed themselves of the public distractions, Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came secretly to a resolution of declaring himself a Roman-catholic. This was a measure of necessity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Isabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France; and would have married her to the young duke of Guise.

In 1593, Henry went publicly to mass, as a mark of his conversion. This complaisance wrought wonders in his favour; and having, with great difficulty, obtained absolution from the pope, all France submitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with, which he did for several years with various fortunes. In 1598, he published the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to the protestants the free exercise of their religion; and next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chastised the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himself, with wonderful attention and success, (assisted in all his undertakings by his minister, the great Sully) to cultivate the happiness of his people,

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* A small kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains; of which Henry's predecessors had been unjustly dispossessed of the greatest part, or Upper Navarre, by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.

ple, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of silk, the benefit of which France feels at this day. Having re-established the tranquillity, and, in a great measure, secured the happiness of his people, he formed connections with the neighbouring powers for reducing the ambition of the house of Austria; for which purpose, it is said, he had formed great schemes, and collected a formidable army; others say (for his intention does not clearly appear) that he designed to have formed Christendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal passion for a favourite princess, whose husband had carried her, for protection, into the Austrian dominions. Whatever may be in those conjectures, it is certain, that while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was assassinated in his coach in the streets of Paris, by one Ravilliac, like Clement, another young enthusiast, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. son to Henry IV. deservedly named the Great, was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he discarded his mother and her favourites, and chose for his minister the famous cardinal Richelieu, who put a period, by his resolute and bloody measures, to the remaining liberties of France, and to the establishment of the protestants there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's sister, endeavoured, by his fleet and arms, to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars on account of religion in France. Historians say, that in these wars above a million of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were spent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, four hundred villages, two thousand churches, two thousand monasteries, and ten thousand houses, were burnt, or otherwise destroyed during their continuance.

Richelieu, by a masterly train of politics, though himself was next to an enthusiast for popery, supported the protestants of Germany, and Gustavus Adolphus, against the house of Austria; and after quelling all the rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, he died some months before Lewis XIII. who, in 1643, left his son, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's nonage, the kingdom was torn in pieces under the administration of his mother, Anne of Austria, by the factions of the great, and the divisions between the court and parliament, for the most trifling causes, and upon

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upon the most despicable principles. The prince of Condé flamed like a blazing star, sometimes a patriot, sometimes a courtier, and sometimes a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a protestant had turned papist. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domestic wars; but the queen-mother having made choice of Mazarine for her first minister, he found means to turn the arms, even of Cromwell, against the Spaniards, and to divide the domestic enemies of the court so effectually among themselves, that when Lewis assumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himself the most absolute monarch that had ever sat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarine, to put the domestic administration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, whom I have already more than once mentioned, and who formed new systems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which he carried to a surprizing height.

To write the history of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis: through the former he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the interests of his subjects only that they might the better answer the purposes of his greatness: by the latter, he embroiled himself with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a dismal scene of devastation. I have often mentioned his impolitic revocation of the edict of Nantes, which obliged the French protestants to take shelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they established the silk manufactories, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was so blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himself the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his convenience, and at last raised against himself a confederacy of almost all the other princes of Europe, at the head of which was king William III. of England. He was so well served, that he made head for some years against this alliance; but having provoked the English by his repeated infidelities, their arms, under the duke of Marlborough, and those of the Austrians, under prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miserable as the beginning of it was splendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1711, was one continued series of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of seeing those places taken from him, which, in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expence of many thousand lives, Germans and Flemings. Just as he was reduced, old as he was, to the desperate resolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was saved by the English withdrawing from their allies,

allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He survived his deliverance but two years, for he died on the first of September 1715, and was succeeded by his great grandson, Lewis XV. the present king.

The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children, might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been seized upon by the duke of Orleans, a man of sense and spirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood. We have already seen in what manner he discharged the national debt of France; but having embroiled himself with Spain, the king was declared major in 1722, and the regent on the second of December that year was carried off by an apoplexy.

The reader is not to expect that I am to follow the affairs of France through all the inconsistent scenes of fighting and treating with the several powers of Europe, which are to be found in their respective histories. Among the first acts of the king's government was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his first minister. Though his system was entirely pacific, yet the situation of affairs in Europe upon the death of the king of Poland more than once embroiled him with the house of Austria. The intention of the French king was to replace his father-in-law Stanislaus on the throne of Poland. In this he failed through the interposition of the Russians and Austrians; but Stanislaus enjoyed the title of king and the revenues of Lorraine during the remainder of his life. The connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war with Great-Britain, in the management of which the latter was so ill seconded by her allies, that it was finished by the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748. As to the war, which had the American contest for its rise, and was ended by the peace of Fontenoy, in 1763, the chief events attending it have been already mentioned, and are too recent to be recapitulated here*.

* Lewis XV. king of France and Navarre, was born in 1710, succeeded his great-grandfather, Lewis XIV. in 1715, crowned at Rheims in 1722, and married in 1725, to Maria Leszinska, only daughter to Stanislaus, late king of Poland, duke of Lorraine, and died in 1768. Their issue are,

1. Maria Adelaide, Madame of France, duchess of Lorraine and Bar, born 1732.
2. Victoria Louisa Maria Theresa, born 1733.
3. Sophia Philippina Elizabeth Justina, born 1734.
4. Louisa Maria, born 1737.

Issue of Lewis, late Dauphin of France, by the late Maria Josepha of Saxony.

1. Lewis Augustus, Dauphin of France, born 1754, married 1770 to Maria Antonietta, sister of the emperor of Germany, born 1755.
2. L. Stan. Xavier, count de Provence, born 1755.
3. Charles Philip, count D'Artois, born 1757.
4. Maria Adelaide Clotilda Xaveria, born 1759.
5. Elizabeth Philippa Maria Helena, born 1764.

NETHERLANDS.

THE seventeen provinces, which are known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy in the German empire.

EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

Length 300 } between { 49 and 54 north latitude.
 Breadth 200 } between { 2 and 7 east longitude.

They are bounded by the German sea on the north; by Germany east; by Lorraine and France south; and by the British channel west.

I shall, for the sake of perspicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of the seventeen provinces under two great divisions: First, the northern, which contains the seven United Provinces, usually known by the name of *Holland*: Secondly, the southern, containing the Austrian and French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly speaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overissel, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Gelderland and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one sovereignty, they generally go by the name of the seven United Provinces.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Length 150 } between { 51 and 54 north latitude.
 Breadth nearly } between { 3 and 7 east longitude.
 the same.

The following is the most satisfactory account we meet with of their geographical division, including the Texel, and other islands.

| Countries Names. | | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. |
|-------------------|------------------------|---------------|---------|----------|---------------|
| United Provinces. | | | | | |
| Calvinists. | Overissel | 1,900 | 66 | 50 | Deventer |
| | Holland | 1,800 | 84 | 52 | AMSTERDAM |
| | Gelderland | 986 | 50 | 40 | Nimeguen |
| | Friesland | 810 | 44 | 34 | Leuwarden |
| | Zutphen | 644 | 37 | 33 | Zutphen |
| | Groningen | 540 | 45 | 37 | Groningen |
| | Utrecht | 450 | 41 | 22 | Utrecht |
| | Zealand | 303 | 29 | 24 | Middleburg |
| | Texeland other islands | 113 | | | |
| Total — | | 7,546 | | | |

in 1713. He died on the first great grandson,

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1710, succeeded his in 1722, and married the king of Poland, duke

and Bar, born 1732.

Josepha of Saxony. married 1770 to Maria 55.

AIR, SOIL, AND SEASONS.] These provinces lie opposite to England, at the distance of 90 miles upon the east side of the English channel, and are only a narrow slip of low swampy land, lying between the mouths of several great rivers, and what the industry of the inhabitants have gained from the sea by means of dykes, which they have raised and still support with incredible labour and expence. The air of the United Provinces is therefore foggy and gross, until it is purified by the frost in winter, when the east wind usually sets in for about four months, and their harbours are frozen up. The moisture of the air causes metals to rust, and wood to mould, more than in any other country, which is the reason of their perpetually rubbing and scouring, and the brightness and cleanliness in their houses so much taken notice of. The soil is unfavourable to vegetation, but by the industry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for pasture, and in many places for tillage.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.] The rivers are an important consideration to the United Provinces; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largest and finest rivers in Europe; the Maese, the Scheld, and the Vecht. There are many small rivers that join these, and a prodigious number of canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the best are those of Rotterdam, Helvoetsluys, and Flushing; that of Amsterdam, though one of the largest and safest in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large vessels cannot pass without being lightened.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO- } The quantity of grain
DUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. }** produced here, is not sufficient for home consumption; but by draining their bogs and marshes, they have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Danish cattle to a vast size; and they make prodigious quantities of butter and cheese. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, some fruit, and iron; but all the pit-coal, and timber used there, and indeed most of the comforts, and even the necessaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of sheep, whose wool is highly valued; and their horses and horned cattle are of a larger size than in any other nation in Europe. It is said there are some wild bears and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimneys, but, being birds of passage, they leave the country about the middle of August, with their young, and return the February following. Their river fish is much the same as ours, but their sea-fish is generally larger, owing perhaps to their fishing in deeper water. No herrings visit their coasts, and they have no oyster-beds. Notwithstanding all these incon-

inconveniencies, the industry of the Hollanders furnishes as great a plenty of the necessaries and commodities of life, and upon as easy terms, as they are to be met with in any part of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MAN- } The seven Uni-
NERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } ted Provinces are
perhaps the best peopled of any spot of the same extent in the world. They contain, according to the best accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and about two millions of inhabitants; besides the twenty-five towns, and the people in what is called the Lands of the Generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands. The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for so the inhabitants of the United Provinces are called in general) seem to be formed by their situation, and to arise from their natural wants. Their country, which is preserved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour, and the artificial drains with which it is every where intersected, must be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheese, are produced by a constant attention to laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the sea by their herring fisheries, for they dispose of their most valuable fishes to the English, and other nations, for the sake of gain. Their air and temperature of the climate incline them to phlegmatic, slow dispositions, both of body and mind; and yet they are irascible, especially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldness with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own interests; for in all other respects they are quiet neighbours and peaceable subjects. Their attention to the constitution and independency of their country is owing to the same principle, for they were never known to effect a change of government but when they thought themselves on the brink of perdition.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active when they find their interest at stake, witness their sea wars with England, and France. Their boors, though slow of understanding, are manageable by fair means. Their seamen are a plain, blunt, but rough, surly, and ill-mannered sort of people, and appear to be insensible of public spirit and affection for each other. Their tradesmen are not to be trusted but when they know themselves to be under the lash of the law for impositions; and they seldom use more words than are necessary about their business. Smoking tobacco is practised by old and young of both sexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people

people are so unsociable. Though a Dutchman, when drunk, is guilty of every species of brutality; and though they have been known to exercise the most dreadful inhumanities for interest abroad, where they thought themselves free from discovery, yet they are in general quiet and inoffensive in their own country, which exhibits but few instances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tipping and drinking charged upon both sexes, it is owing in a great measure to the nature of their soil and climate. In general, all appetites and passions seem to run lower and cooler here than in other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unusual strains of pleasant humour, nor warm enough for love; so that the softer passions are no natives of this country; and love itself is little better than a mechanical affection, arising from interest, conveniency, or habit; it is talked of sometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of rather than felt, and as a discourse that becomes them rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the most expert of any people; as to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no less necessary science of preserving it. Every man spends less than his income, be that what it will; nor does it enter into the heads of this sagacious people, that the common course of expence should equal the revenue; and, when this happens, they think at least that they have lived that year to no purpose; and the report of it discredits a man among them as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. In all these particulars, the women exactly resemble the men, especially in their natural indifference as to the warmer passions. No country, therefore, can vie with theirs in the number of those inhabitants, whose lot, if not riches, is at least a comfortable sufficiency; and where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midst of a world of taxes and contributions, such as no other country does experience, they flourish and grow rich. From this systematic spirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the most obstinate perseverance, they succeeded in the stupendous works of draining their country of those immense deluges of water that had overflowed so large a part of it during many ages, while at the same time they brought under their subjection and command, the rivers and seas that surround them, by dykes of incredible thickness and strength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and safety of their territories against the danger of an enemy. This they have done, by covering their frontiers and cities with
immense

innumerable sluices, by means of which, at the shortest notice, the most rapid inundations are let in, and they become in a few hours inaccessible.

From that frugality and perseverance which attends them at all times, and under the most intolerable difficulties, they were enabled not only to throw off the Spanish yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the most tender parts, by seizing her rich galleons, and forming new establishments in Africa, the East and West Indies, at the expence of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a despicable province, a most powerful and formidable enemy.

Equally wonderful was the rise of their military and marine establishments, maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II. of England, not less than 150,000 men, and upwards of 80 ships of the line. The rich traders and mechanics however, begin now to approximate to the luxuries of English and French dressing and living; and their nobility and high magistrates, who have retired from trade, rival those of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diversions of the Dutch differ not much from those of the English, who seem to have borrowed from them the neatness of their drinking booths, skittle and other grounds, and small pieces of water, which form the amusements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand organs, and other musical inventions. They are the best skaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to see the crowds in a hard frost upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women, in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

DRESS.] Their dress formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men; and the jerkins, plain mobbs, short petticoats, and other oddities of the women; all which, added to the natural thickness and clumsiness of their persons, gave them a very grotesque appearance. These dresses now prevail only among the lower ranks.

RELIGION.] The established religion here is the Presbyterian or Calvinism; none but Presbyterians are admitted into any office or post in the government, excepting the army; yet all religions and sects are tolerated, and have their respective meetings or assemblies for public worship, among which the papists and Jews are very numerous.

LANGUAGE.] The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of fashion speak English and French. Their Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onse Vader, die in de hemel is zyn uwen naam worde geheyligh: uw koninkrych ch kome: uwe wille geschiede gelyck in den hemel zoo oek op den arden, ons dage-*
licks

licks broot geef ons heeden ene vergeeft onse schulden gelyk ook wy vergeeven onse schuldenaaren : ene en laat ons neit in versoer kinge-maer vertoest on van den hoosten. Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Erasmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, stand at the head almost of learning itself, as Boerhaave does of medicine. Haerlem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the most elegant edition of the classics came from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controversial divinity, which insinuated itself so much into the state, that it had almost proved fatal to the government, witness the ridiculous disputes about Arminianism, free-will, predestination, and the like. Besides Boerhaave they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius and Burmann stand at the head of their numerous commentators upon the classics. Nothing is more common than their Latin poems and epigrams ; and later times have produced a Van Haaren, who is possessed of some poetical abilities, and about the year 1747 published poems in favour of liberty, which were admired as rarities chiefly because their author was a Dutchman. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and arise chiefly from their employments in universities, church, or state.

UNIVERSITIES.] These are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Francker.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The prodigious dykes,
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } some of which are
said to be 17 ells in thickness, mounds, and canals, constructed by the Dutch, to preserve their country from those dreadful inundations by which it formerly suffered so much, are stupendous, and hardly to be equalled. A stone quarry near Maestricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of subterraneous palace, supported by pillars twenty feet high. The stadthouse of Amsterdam is perhaps the best building of that kind in the world : it stands upon thirteen thousand large piles, driven into the ground ; and the inside is equally convenient and magnificent. Several museums, containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the famous university of Leyden ; such as the effigies of a peasant of Prussia, who swallowed a knife of ten inches length, and is said to have lived eight years after the same was cut out of his stomach ; but the truth of this seems to be doubtful. A shirt made of the entrails of a man. Two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the muscles and tendons of the

NETHERLANDS.

the human body curiously set up, by professor Stalpert Vander-Weil.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND
OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC
AND PRIVATE.

Amsterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to contain

241,000 people, and to be, next to London, the most commercial city in the world; in this respect, some have even given it the preference to London, though I cannot see with what propriety. Its conveniencies for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almost beyond description. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under trees planted on their borders, are admirable; but above all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness that is every where observed within doors. Rotterdam is next to Amsterdam for commerce and wealth: its inhabitants are computed at 56,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the seat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the resort of foreign ambassadors and strangers of all distinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapness of its provisions, and the politeness of its inhabitants, who are computed to be about 40,000: it is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleasure and politics. Leyden and Utrecht are known in the annals of literature for the accommodations of the scholars who attend their universities, and the beauty and conveniences of their public schools. Saardam, though a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as the workshop where Peter the Great, of Muscovy, in person, served his apprenticeship to ship-building, and laboured as a common handicraft. The upper part of Gelderland is subject to Prussia, and the capital city Gelder.

Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a desirable country to live in, especially to foreigners. Here are no mountains nor rising grounds, no plantations, purling streams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or steeple, has the appearance of a continued marsh or bog, drained at certain distances by innumerable ditches; and the canals, which serve as high roads, are frequently in a state of stagnation. The usual way of passing from town to town is by tractscouts or covered boats, dragged along by horses at a slow trot. This method of travelling is cheap, but extremely dull, for there is a sameness through all the provinces. In Amsterdam, which is built upon piles, are no springs of fresh or wholesome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preserve the rain water in reservoirs,

COM-

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce, would comprehend that of almost all Europe. There is scarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, on a state to which they do not trade. In this they are assisted by the populousness of their country, the cheapness of their labour, and, above all, by their water carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe; and goods may be purchased here sometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. Their East-India company have had the monopoly of the fine spices for more than a hundred years, and is the most opulent and powerful of any in the world. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is said to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Asia. Here the viceroys appear in greater splendor than the stadtholder; and it is said the Dutch subjects in Batavia scarcely acknowledge any dependance on the mother country. They have other settlements in India, but none more pleasant, healthful, or useful, than that on the Cape of Good-Hope, the grand rendezvous of the ships of all nations, outward or homeward bound. When Lewis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made some dispositions to ship themselves off to their settlements in India; so great was their aversion to the French government. Not to mention their herring and whale fisheries, which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they excel at home in numberless branches of trade, such as their pottery, tobacco-pipes, Delft-ware, finely refined salt; their oil-mills, starch-manufactures; their improvements of the raw linen thread of Germany; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; their fine linen and table damasks; their saw-mills for timber, for shipping and houses, in immense quantities; their great sugar-baking; their vast woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dressing; the great quantity of their coin and specie, assisted by their banks, most especially by that of Amsterdam; their East-India trade; and their general industry and frugality. It is greatly doubted, however, whether their commerce, navigation, manufactures, and fisheries, are in the same flourishing state now as they were in the beginning of this century; and whether the riches and luxury of individuals have not damped the general industry of the inhabitants.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of these, the capital is the East-India, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immense wealth, having divided sixty per cent. and sometimes forty, about the year 1660; at present the dividends are much reduced;

reduced; but in a hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors, on an average, one year with another, divided somewhat above twenty-four per cent. So late as the year 1760, they divided fifteen per cent. but the Dutch West-India company, the same year, divided no more than two and a half per cent. The bank of Amsterdam is thought to be inexhaustibly rich, and is under an excellent direction: it is said, by Sir William Temple, to contain the greatest treasure, either real or imaginary, that is known any where in the world. What may seem a paradox is, that this bank is so far from paying any interest, that the money in it is worth somewhat more than current cash is in common payments. Mr. Anderson supposes, that the cash, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which is kept in the vaults of the stadthouse, amounts to thirty-six (though others say only to thirty) millions sterling.

[CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This is a very intricate article; for though the United Provinces subsist in a common confederacy, yet each province has an internal government or constitution independent of the others: this government is called the states of that province, and the delegates from them form the states general, in whom the sovereignty of the whole confederacy is vested; but though a province should send two, or more delegates, yet such province has no more than one voice in every resolution; and before that resolution can have the force of a law, it must be approved of by every province, and by every city and republic in that province. This formality, in times of great danger and emergency, has been set aside. Every resolution of the states of a particular province must be carried unanimously.

The council of state consists likewise of deputies from the several provinces: but its constitution is different from that of the states general: it is composed of twelve persons, whereof Gelderland sends two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Friesland, one; Overissel, one; and Groningen, one. These deputies, however, do not vote provincially, but personally. Their business is to prepare estimates, and ways and means for raising the revenue, as well as other matters that are to be laid before the states general. The states of the provinces are stiled Noble and Mighty Lords; but those of Holland, Noble and Most Mighty Lords; and the states general, High and Mighty Lords, or the Lords the States General of the United Netherlands; or, their High Mightinesses. Subordinate to these two bodies, is the chamber of accounts, which is likewise composed of provincial deputies, who

who audit all public accounts. The admiralty forms a separate board, and the executive part of it is committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland. In Holland, the people have nothing to do either in chusing their representatives or their magistrates. In Amsterdam, which takes the lead in all public deliberations, the magistracy is lodged in thirty-six senators, who are chosen for life, and every vacancy among them is filled up by the survivors. The same senate also elects the deputies to represent the cities in the province of Holland.

I have mentioned the above particulars, because without a knowledge of them, it is impossible to understand the history of the United Provinces, from the death of King William to the year 1747, when the stadtholdership was made hereditary in the male and female representatives of the family of Orange. This office in a manner supercedes the constitution I have already described. The stadtholder is president of the states of every province; and such is his power and influence, that he can change the deputies, magistrates, and officers, in every province and city. By this he has the moulding of the assembly of the states general, though he has no voice in it; in short, though he has not the title, he has more real power and authority than many kings; for besides the influence and revenue he derives from the stadtholdership, he has several principalities and large estates of his own. The present stadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Nassau. His titles are, Hereditary Stadtholder, Captain General, and Admiral of the Seven United Provinces. He is son of the late stadtholder, William-Charles, who married Anne, princess royal of Great Britain, and died in 1751. The present stadtholder was born in 1748, and in 1767 married the princess Frederica of Prussia.

With respect to the administration of justice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal causes, appeal lies from the petty and county courts; and it is said that justice is no where distributed with more impartiality.

REVENUES.] The government of the United Provinces proportion their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Those taxes consist of an almost general excise, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; so that the public revenue amounts annually to about two millions and a half sterling. The province of Holland pays above half of this revenue. The taxes in these provinces are so heavy, and so many, that it is not without reason that a certain author asserts, that the only thing that has escaped taxation there, is the air they

they breathe. For the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandize are said to be exceeding low. Notwithstanding the number and greatness of the taxes, every province is said to labour under very heavy debts, especially Holland; and the public credit is not in the most flourishing condition, witness the immense sums in the British funds.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces is uncertain in time of peace, but they commonly amount to about 40,000; 25,000 of whom serve in garrisons; many of them are Scots and Swifs; and, in time of war, they hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is vested in the stadtholder, under whom is the field marshal general. No nation in Europe, England excepted, can fit out a more formidable fleet than the Dutch, having always vast quantities of timber prepared for building of ships; but the present marine force of the United Provinces is small, compared to what it once was, when equal, if not superior, to that of Great-Britain itself.

ARMS.] The ensigns armorial of the Seven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, are, or, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlas, and with the other a bundle of seven arrows close bound together, in allusion to the seven confederate provinces, with the following motto, *Concordia res parvæ crescunt.*

HISTORY.] See the Austrian Netherlands.

AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Length 200 } between { 49 and 52 north latitude.
 Breadth 200 } { 2 and 7 east longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the United Provinces on the north; by Germany, east; by Lorraine, Champaign, and Picardy, in France, south; and by another part of Picardy, and the English sea, west.

As this country belongs to three different powers, the Austrians, French, and Dutch, we shall be more particular in distinguishing the provinces and towns belonging to each state.

1. Province of BRABANT.

| Subdivisions. | Chief towns. | |
|-----------------------|-------------------|---------|
| 4. Dutch Brabant: ——— | Boisleduc | } N. |
| | Breda | |
| | Bergen-op-Zoom | |
| | Maeltricht, S. E. | } N. W. |
| | Grave, N. E. | |
| | Lillo | |
| | Steenbergen | |
| | D | |

Subdivisions.

Chief towns.

2. Austrian Brabant — } { Bruffels, E. lon. 4 deg. 6 min.
N. lat. 50-50.
Louvain } in the middle.
Vilvorden }
Landen }

2. ANTWERP; and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though surrounded by it, and subject to the house of Austria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S. E.

Chief towns — } { Limburg, E. lon. 6-5. N. lat.
50-37. subject to Austria.
Dalem } subject to the
Fauquemont, or } Dutch.
Valkenburg }

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Subdivisions.

Chief towns.

Austrian Luxemburg — } { Luxemburg, E. lon. 6-8.
N. lat. 49-45.
French Luxemburg — } { Thionville } S. E.
Montmedy }

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, subject to Austria.

Chief towns — } { Namur, on the Sambre and Maeſe,
E. lon. 4-50. N. lat. 50-30.
Charleroy on the Sambre. }

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Subdivisions.

Chief towns.

Austrian Hainault — } { Mons, E. lon. 3-33. }
N. lat. 50-30. } in the
Aeth } middle
Enguien }
French Hainault — } { Valenciennes } S. W.
Bouchain }
Conde }
Landrecy }

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France — } { Cambray, E. of Arras, E. lon.
3-15. N. lat. 50-15.
Crevecour, S. of Cambray. }

9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France — } { Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe,
E. lon. 2-5. N. lat. 50-20.
St. Omer, E. of Boulogne
Aire, S. of St. Omer
St. Venant, E. of Aire
Bethune, S. E. of Aire
Terouen, S. of St. Omer. }

NETHERLANDS.

10. Province of FLANDERS.

Subdivisions.

Chief towns.

| | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|---|--|
| <p>Dutch Flanders —</p> | } | { | Sluys, N. Axel, N. Hulst, N. Sas van Ghent, N. |
| <p>Austrian Flanders —</p> | } | { | Ghent, on the Scheldt, E. lon. 3-36. N. lat. 51. Bruges } Ostend } N. W. near the sea. Newport } Oudenard on the Scheld. Courtray } on the Lis. Dixmude } Ypres, N. of Lisle Tournay on the Scheld Menin on the Lis. |
| <p>French Flanders —</p> | } | { | Lisle, W. of Tournay Dunkirk, on the coast E. of Calais Douay, W. of Arras Mardike, W. of Dunkirk St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes Gravelin, E. of Calais. |

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coast of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the seasons more settled, both in winter and summer, than they are in England. The soil and its produce are rich, especially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of pasture; and Flanders itself has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and sometimes of England. The most barren parts for corn, rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Austrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and industry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the amenity of its roads and villages, and the fertility of its land. If it has fallen off in later times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is still a most desirable and pleasant country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, scarcely a single hill in it. Brabant, and the rest of the provinces, consist of little hills and vallies, woods, inclosed grounds, and champaign fields.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maese, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheld, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent, and Ostend.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and brimstone, are found in Luxemburg, Limburg, and Liege, as are some marble quarries.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Flemings (for so the inhabitants of Flanders and the Austrian Low Countries are generally called) are thought to be a heavy, blunt, honest people; but their manners are somewhat indelicate. Formerly they were known to fight desperately in defence of their country; at present they make no great figure. The Austrian Netherlands are extremely populous, but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them at a medium at a million and a half. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diversions are the same with those of the peasants of the neighbouring countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of French Flanders are mere Frenchmen and women in both these particulars. The Flemings on the frontiers of Holland dress like the Dutch boors, and their language is the same; but the better sort of people speak French, and dress in the same taste.

RELIGION.] The established religion here is the Roman-catholic; but protestants, and other sects, are not molested.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are Cambray, Maline or Mecklin; the bishoprics, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremonde.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS.] The society of Jesus has produced the most learned men in the Austrian Low countries, in which they had many comfortable settlements, which are now upon the decline. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, are their chief productions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school by themselves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. Fiamingo, or the Flemings models for heads, particularly those of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed tapestry-weaving to themselves.

UNIVERSITIES.] Louvain, Douay, and St. Omer.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL, } Some Roman monuments of temples and

and other buildings are to be found in those provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are also found here; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, seen through all their cities, give evidences of their former grandeur.

[CITIES.] This article has employed several large volumes published by different authors, but in times when the Austrian Netherlands were far more flourishing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles, but now unoccupied, and great part of it in a manner a void. Bruges, formerly so noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now dwindled to an inconsiderable place. Ostend is now no more than a convenient harbour for traders; and Ypres, a strong garrison town. The same may be said of Charleroy and Namur, which lie in the Austrian Hainault.

Louvain, the capital of the Austrian Brabant, instead of its flourishing manufactories and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Brussels retains somewhat of its ancient manufactories; and being the residence of the governor or viceroy of the Austrian Netherlands, it is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapestry and thread lace-shop, with the houses of some bankers, jewellers, and painters adjoining. One of the first exploits of the Dutch, soon after they threw off the Spanish yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by sinking vessels, loaded with stone, in the mouth of the Scheld; thus shutting up for ever, the entrance of that river to ships of burden. This was the more cruel as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow sufferers in the cause of liberty.

It may be observed here, that every gentleman's house is a castle or *chateau*; and that there are more strong towns in the Netherlands than in all the rest of Europe; but since the decline of their trade, by the rise of the English and Dutch, these towns are considerably diminished in size, and whole streets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance uninhabited. In the Netherlands, provisions are extremely good and cheap. A stranger may dine in Brussels on seven or eight dishes of meat for less than a shilling English. Travelling is safe, reasonable and delightful in this luxurious country. The roads are generally a broad causeway, and run for some miles in a straight line, till they terminate with the view of some noble buildings.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the French and Austrian Netherlands, are their beautiful lincens and laces; in which, notwithstanding the boasted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled, particularly in that species called cambricks, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. These manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Austrian Netherlands are still considered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal house, as being sovereign of the whole, is the sole director and summoning prince. This circle contributes its share to the imposts of the empire, and sends an envoy to the diet, but is not subject to the judicatories of the empire. It is under a governor-general, appointed by the court of Vienna, who, at present, is his serene highness prince Charles of Lorraine, brother to the late, and uncle to the present emperor. The face of an assembly, or parliament, for each province, is still kept up, and consists of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Brussels. Each province claims particular privileges, but they are of very little effect; and the governor seldom or never finds any resistance to the will of his court. Every province has a particular governor, subject to the regent; and causes are here decided according to the civil and canon law.

REVENUES.] These rise from the demesne lands and customs; but so much is the trade of the Austrian Flanders now reduced, that they are said not to defray the expence of their government. The French Netherlands bring in a considerable revenue to the crown.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The troops maintained here by the empress-queen are chiefly employed in the frontier garrisons. Though by the barrier treaty, the Austrians were obliged to maintain three-fifths of those garrisons, and the Dutch two, yet both of them are miserably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at least 30,000 men, and in time of war above 10,000 more.

ARMS.] The arms of Flanders are, or, a lion sable, and languid gules.

HISTORY.] The seventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies west of the Rhine, was called Belgicæ Galliæ by the Romans. Upon the decline of that empire, the Goths, and other northern people, possessed themselves of these provinces first, as they passed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the Roman empire; and after being erected into small governments, the heads of which were despotic within their own dominions, they were swallowed up

by

by the house of Burgundy. The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family, ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his son Philip, who succeeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occasioned a general insurrection. The counts Hoorn, Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it, and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the same time in the Netherlands, his disciples joined the malecontents. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquisition, in order to suppress them, and many thousands were put to death by that court, besides those that perished by the sword. Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be their stadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though these revolters at first were so despicable as to be termed Beggars by their tyrants, their perseverance and courage was such, under the prince of Orange, and the assistance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain at last to declare them a free people, about the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independant state, under the title of *The United Provinces*. When the house of Austria, which for some ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable, and when the public jealousy was directed against that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had dispossessed the prince of Orange of the stadtholdership, the spirit of the people was such, that they revived it in the person of the prince, who was afterwards William III. king of Great-Britain; and during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy against Lewis XIV. king of France. By their sea wars with England, under Cromwell, and in the reign of Charles II. they acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power; but, as I have already mentioned, their military virtue is on the decline. The Spaniards remained possessed of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the Low Countries, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, in the year 1706. After which, Brussels, the capital, and great part of these provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, their sovereign; and his daughter, the empress queen, remained possessed of them until the war of 1741, when the French made an entire conquest of them,

except part of the province of Luxemburg; and the places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748, may be seen in the preceding general table of divisions.

G E R M A N Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | | | |
|---------|--------|-----------|---|
| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
| Length | 600 | } between | { 5 and 19 east longitude. 45 and 55 north latitude. |
| Breadth | 500 | | |

BOUNDARIES.] **T**HE empire of Germany, properly so called, is bounded by the German ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, on the north; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the east; by Switzerland and the Alps, which divides it from Italy, on the south; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on the west, from which it is separated by the Rhine, Moselle, and the Maes.

GRAND DIVISIONS.] The divisions of Germany, as laid down even by modern writers, are various and uncertain. I shall therefore stick to those that are most generally received. Germany formerly was divided into the Upper, or southern, and the Lower, or northern. The emperor Maximilian, predecessor and grandfather to the emperor Charles V. divided it into ten great circles; and the division was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, or the seventeen provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we are to confine ourselves to nine of those divisions, as they now subsist.

Whereof three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the south.

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|---|---|--|---|
| The northern circles | — | — | } Upper Saxony Lower Saxony Westphalia | |
| The circles in the middle | — | — | | } Upper Rhine Lower Rhine Franconia |
| The southern circles | — | — | | |

I. UPPER SAXONY CIRCLE.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| Pomerania, in the North | Prussian Pomerania, N. E. | } Stetin, E. lon. 14-50; N. lat. 53-30. |
| | Swedish Pomerania, N. W. | |

nd the places
a-Chapelle in
eneral table of

Longitude.
North latitude.

ny, properly so
the German
h; by Poland
; by Switzer-
on the south;
Countries, on
ine, Moselle,
many, as laid
uncertain. I
rally received.
, or southern,
ximilian, pre-
les V. divided
nfirmed in the
Burgundy, or
s, being now
rselfes to nine

e middle, and

Upper Saxony
Lower Saxony
Westphalia
Upper Rhine
Lower Rhine
Franconia
Austria
Bavaria
Swabia.

Chief towns.
E. lon. 14-50;
lat. 53-30.
nd

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|--|---|---|
| Brandenburg in the middle, subject to its own elector the king of Prussia. | Altmark, west Middlemark Newark, east | Stendel Berlin, Potsdam Francfort, Custrin. |
| Saxony, Proper, in the south, subject to its own elector. | Duchy of Saxony, N. Lusatia, marq. east. Misnia, marq. south | Wittenburgh Bantzen, Gorlits Dresden, E. lon. 13-36. N. Lat. 51. Missein. |
| Thuringia, langr. west | _____ | Erfurtt, subject to the elector of Mentz. |
| The dutchies of | Saxe Meiningen _____ Saxe Zeits _____ Saxe Altenburg, S. E. _____ Saxe Weimer, west — Saxe Gotha, west _____ Saxe Eifnach, S. W. — Saxe Saalfield _____ | Meiningen Zeits Altenburg Weimer Gotha Eifnach Saalfield. |
| The counties of | Schwartzburg, W. } Belchingen, N. } Mansfield, N. } | Subject to their respective counts Schwartzburg Belchingen Mansfield. |
| The dutchies of | Hall, middle, subject to Prussia } Saxe Naumberg, subject to its own duke _____ } | Hall Naumberg. |
| The counties of | Stolberg, north-west _____ Hohenstein, west _____ | Stolberg Northhausen |
| Principality of | Anhalt, north _____ | Deffau, Zerbst Bernberg, Kothen. |
| Bishopric of | Saxe Hall, west _____ Voigtland, south, subject to the elector of Saxony _____ | Hall Plowen. |
| Dutchy of | Mersberg, middle, subject to the elector of Saxony _____ | Mersberg. |

2. LOWER SAXONY CIRCLE.

| | | | |
|----------------------------------|--|---|--|
| Holstein D. | Holstein Proper, N. } Ditmarsh, west } Stormaria, south } Hamburgh, a fove- } reign state } Wagerland, east } | Partly sub. to Denmark, and partly to the duke of Holstein | Keil, subject to Holstein Gottorp Meldorp } subject to Glucstat } Denmark. Hamburg, E. L. 10-35. N. L. 54. an imperial city Lubec, an imperial city. |
| Lawenburg Dutchy, | north of the Elbe, subject to Hanover _____ | Lawenburg. | |
| Subject to the duke of Brunswick | D. Brunswic Proper } D. Wolfembuttle } C. Rheinftein, south } C. Blachenberg } _____ | middle Brunswic, E. L. 10-30; N. Lat. 52-30. Wolfembuttle Rheinftein Blackenburg | |

Subject

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|---|--|---|
| Subject to the elector of Hanover, king of Great Britain. | D. Calenburg — | Hanover |
| | D. Grubbenhagen — | Grubbenhagen |
| | Gottengen — | Gottengen |
| Lunenburg D. sub. to Hanover. | D. of Lunenburg Proper | Lunenburg |
| | D. Zell — | Zell, E. lon. 10. N. lat. 32-52. |
| Bremen D. and Verden D. sub. to Hanover, north | Bremen, — Verden. | E. lon. 9. N. lat. 53-39, an imperial city. |
| | | |
| Mecklenburg Duchy — | D. Swerin, north, subject to its duke — | Swerin, E. lon. 11-30. N. lat. 54. |
| | D. Gustrow, north, subject to its duke — | Gustrow. |
| Hildesheim bishopric, in the middle, subject to its bishop | — | Hildesheim, an imperial city. |
| Magdeburg duchy, south-east, subject to the king of Prussia | — | Magdeburg. |
| Halberstat duchy, south-east, subject to Prussia, | — | Halberstat. |

3. WESTPHALIA CIRCLE.

| | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|
| North Division | Embden, C. or East Friesland, subject to the king of Prussia | Embden, an imperial city |
| | Oldenburg, C. } sub. to the king of Denmark | |
| | Delmonhurst } subject to Hanover | |
| | Hoye } subject to Hanover | |
| | Diepholt } subject to Hanover | |
| Western Division | Munster B. subject to its bishop | Munster, E. lon. 7-10. N. lat. 52. |
| | Paderborn B. subject to its bishop | Paderborn |
| | Osnaburg B. subject to its bishop | Osnaburg |
| | Lippe, C. sub. to its own count | Lippe, Pymont |
| | Minden D. } sub. to Prussia | Minden |
| | Ravensburg C. } sub. to Prussia | Ravensburg |
| | Westphalia D. sub. to the elector of Cologne | Arensburg |
| | Tecklenburg C. } subject to their respective counts | Tecklenburg |
| | Ritberg C. } subject to their respective counts | Ritberg |
| | Schawenburg C. } subject to their respective counts | Schawenburg |
| Middle Division | Cleves D. subject to the king of Prussia | Cleef, E. lon. 5-36. N. lat. 51-40. |
| | Berg. D. } subject to the elector Palatine | Dusseldorf |
| | Juliers D. } subject to the elector Palatine | Juliers Aix |
| | Mark C. subject to Prussia | Ham |
| | Liege B. subject to its own bishop | Liege, E. lon. 5-36. N. lat. 50-40. |
| | Bentheim C. subject to Hanover | Huy |
| Steinfort C. subject to its count | Bentheim Steinfort. | |

4. UPPER RHINE CIRCLE.

Chief towns.
 Hanover
 Grubbenhagen
 Gottengen
 Lunenburg
 Zell, E. lon. 10.
 N. lat. 32-52.
 n. 9. N. lat. 53-30,
 city.
 rin, E. lon. 11-30.
 . lat. 54.
 row.
 esheim, an impe-
 l city.
 deburg.
 berstat.
 e.
 mbden, an imperial
 city
 Oldenburgh
 Melmonhurft
 Hoye
 Diepholt.
 Munder, E. lon. 7-10.
 N. lat. 52.
 aderborn
 Osnaburg
 Lippe, Pyrmont
 Minden
 Ravensburg
 rensburg
 ecklenburg
 itberg
 chawenburg
 leef, E. lon. 5-36.
 N. lat. 51-40.
 Duffeldorf
 uliers Aix
 Ham
 iege, E. lon. 5-36.
 N. lat. 50-40.
 Huy
 entheim
 teinfurt.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|--|--|---|
| Hesse | Hesse Cassel, landg. N. — | Cassel, E. lon. 9-20. N. lat. 51-20. |
| | Hesse Marpurg, landg. N. — | Marpurg |
| | Hesse Darmstadt, landg. — | Darmstadt. |
| Each of the above subdivisions are subject to their respective landgraves. | | |
| Counties in the Wetteraw south. | Hesse Hoberg — — — | Homberg |
| | Hesse Rhinefield — — — | Rhinefield |
| | Hesse Wanfried — — — | Wonfield |
| | Nassau Dillenburg — — — | Dillenburg |
| | Nassau Diets — — — | Diets |
| | Nassau Hadamar — — — | Hadamar |
| | Nassau Kerberg — — — | Kerberg |
| | Nassau Siegen — — — | Siegen |
| | Nassau Idstein — — — | Idstein |
| | Nassau Weilburg — — — | Weilburg |
| Nassau Wisbaden — — — | Wisbaden | |
| Nassau Bielsteid — — — | Bielsteid | |
| Nassau Otweiler — — — | Otweiler | |
| Nassau Usingen — — — | Usingen | |
| Each county subject to its own count of the house of Nassau. | | |
| Territory of Frankfort, a sovereign state — | Frankfort on the Maine, E. lon. 8-30. N. lat. 50-10. an imperial city. | |
| County of Erpach, subject to its own count — | Erpach east. | |
| Bishopric of Spire, a sovereign state — | Spire on the Rhine, an imperial city | |
| Duchy of Zwebruggen, or Deuxponts, subject to the duke of Deuxponts — — — | Deuxponts in the Palat. | |
| County of Catzenelbogen, subject to Hesse Cassel — — — — — | Catzenelbogen on the Lhon. | |
| Counties of | Waldec, subject to its own count | Waldec |
| | Solms, subject to its own count | Solms |
| | Hanau, subject to Hesse Cassel — | Hanau |
| | Eysenberg, sub. to its own count | Eysenberg |
| | Soyn — — — — — | Sayn |
| | Wied — — — — — | Wied |
| | Wetgenstein — — — — — | Witgenstein |
| Haizfield — — — — — | Hatzfield | |
| Westerberg — — — — — | Westerberg. | |
| Abby of Fuld, subject to its abbot — | Fuld. | |
| Hirschfield — subject to Hesse Cassel — | Hirschfield. | |

5. LOWER RHINE CIRCLE.

| Divisions. | Chief towns. |
|--|---|
| Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that river, subject to the elector Palatine | Heidelberg on the Neckar, E. lon. 8-40. N. lat. 49-20. Phillitburg, Mannheim, and Fran- kental on the Rhine. |

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|-------------------------|----------|--|--|-----------|---|--|-------------------------|--------------|-------|----------|------------|---|--------------|------------|
| Archbishops and Electors of | <table border="0"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Cologn</td><td rowspan="3" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td><td rowspan="3" style="vertical-align: middle;">Subject to their respective electors.</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Mentz</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Triers</td></tr> </table> | Cologn | } | Subject to their respective electors. | Mentz | Triers | <table border="0"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Cologne, on the Rhone, E. lon. 6-40. N. lat. 50-50.</td><td rowspan="3" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td><td rowspan="3" style="vertical-align: middle;">Bonn, on the Rhine.</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Mentz, on the Rhine, Af- chaffenburg, on the Maine.</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Triers, on the Moselle.</td></tr> </table> | Cologne, on the Rhone, E. lon. 6-40. N. lat. 50-50. | } | Bonn, on the Rhine. | Mentz, on the Rhine, Af- chaffenburg, on the Maine. | Triers, on the Moselle. | | | | | | | |
| Cologn | } | Subject to their respective electors. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Mentz | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Triers | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cologne, on the Rhone, E. lon. 6-40. N. lat. 50-50. | } | Bonn, on the Rhine. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Mentz, on the Rhine, Af- chaffenburg, on the Maine. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Triers, on the Moselle. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bishopric of Worms, a sovereign state | — | <table border="0"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial city.</td></tr> </table> | Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial city. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial city. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Duchy of Simmeren, sub. to its own duke | — | Simmeren. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Counties of | <table border="0"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Rhinegravestein</td><td rowspan="5" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td><td rowspan="5" style="vertical-align: middle;">Subject to the elector</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Meurs, subj. to Prussia</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Veldenti</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Palatine</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Spanheim</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Leymingen</td></tr> </table> | Rhinegravestein | } | Subject to the elector | Meurs, subj. to Prussia | Veldenti | Palatine | Spanheim | Leymingen | <table border="0"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Rhinegravestein</td><td rowspan="3" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td><td rowspan="3" style="vertical-align: middle;">Chief towns.</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Meurs</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Veldents</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Creutznach</td><td rowspan="2" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td><td rowspan="2" style="vertical-align: middle;">Chief towns.</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Leymingen.</td></tr> </table> | Rhinegravestein | } | Chief towns. | Meurs | Veldents | Creutznach | } | Chief towns. | Leymingen. |
| Rhinegravestein | } | Subject to the elector | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Meurs, subj. to Prussia | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Veldenti | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Palatine | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Spanheim | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Leymingen | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Rhinegravestein | } | Chief towns. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Meurs | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Veldents | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Creutznach | } | Chief towns. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Leymingen. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

6. FRANCONIA CIRCLE.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|--|---|--|--------------------------------------|--|---|----------------|---|---------------|--|-----------|---|--------------|---------|-----------|----------|--------|---------------------------|---------|
| Bishoprics of | <table border="0"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Wurtzburg, W.</td><td rowspan="3" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td><td rowspan="3" style="vertical-align: middle;">Subject to their re- spective bishops.</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Bemberg, N.</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Aichstat, S.</td></tr> </table> | Wurtzburg, W. | } | Subject to their re- spective bishops. | Bemberg, N. | Aichstat, S. | <table border="0"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Wurtzburg</td><td rowspan="3" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td><td rowspan="3" style="vertical-align: middle;">Chief towns.</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Bemberg</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Aichstat.</td></tr> </table> | Wurtzburg | } | Chief towns. | Bemberg | Aichstat. | | | | | | | | |
| Wurtzburg, W. | } | Subject to their re- spective bishops. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bemberg, N. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aichstat, S. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Wurtzburg | } | Chief towns. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bemberg | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aichstat. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Marquisates of | <table border="0"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Cullenback, north-east</td><td rowspan="2" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td><td rowspan="2" style="vertical-align: middle;">Subject to their re- spective margraves</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Onspach, S.</td></tr> </table> | Cullenback, north-east | } | Subject to their re- spective margraves | Onspach, S. | <table border="0"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Cullen- back</td><td rowspan="2" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td><td rowspan="2" style="vertical-align: middle;">Chief towns.</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Onspach.</td></tr> </table> | Cullen- back | } | Chief towns. | Onspach. | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cullenback, north-east | } | Subject to their re- spective margraves | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Onspach, S. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cullen- back | } | Chief towns. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Onspach. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Principality of Henneburgh, N. | — | Henneburgh | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Duchy of Coberg, N. subj. to its duke | — | Coberg | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Duchy of Hilburghausen, subj. to its duke | — | Hilburghausen | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Burgravate of Nuremburg, S. E. an independent state | — | Nuremburg, an imperial city. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Territory of the great master of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim, S. W. | — | Mergentheim. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Counties of | <table border="0"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Reineck, W.</td><td rowspan="7" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td><td rowspan="7" style="vertical-align: middle;">Subject to its own margrave or count</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Bareith, E. sub. to its own margrave</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Papenheim, S. sub. to its own count</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Wertheim, W.</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Cassel, middle</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Schwartzzenburgh, subject to its own count</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Holach, S. W.</td></tr> </table> | Reineck, W. | } | Subject to its own margrave or count | Bareith, E. sub. to its own margrave | Papenheim, S. sub. to its own count | Wertheim, W. | Cassel, middle | Schwartzzenburgh, subject to its own count | Holach, S. W. | <table border="0"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Reineck</td><td rowspan="7" style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td><td rowspan="7" style="vertical-align: middle;">Chief towns.</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Bareith</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Papenheim</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Wertheim</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Cassel</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Schwartzzenburg middle</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Holach.</td></tr> </table> | Reineck | } | Chief towns. | Bareith | Papenheim | Wertheim | Cassel | Schwartzzenburg middle | Holach. |
| Reineck, W. | } | Subject to its own margrave or count | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bareith, E. sub. to its own margrave | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Papenheim, S. sub. to its own count | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Wertheim, W. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cassel, middle | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Schwartzzenburgh, subject to its own count | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Holach, S. W. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Reineck | } | Chief towns. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bareith | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Papenheim | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Wertheim | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cassel | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Schwartzzenburg middle | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Holach. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

7. AUSTRIA CIRCLE.

The whole circle belongs to the empress queen of Hungary.

| Division. | Chief town. | |
|--|---|--|
| Archduchy of Austria Proper — | <table border="0"> <tr><td style="border-left: 1px solid black; border-right: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;">Vienna, E. lon. 16-20. N. lat. 48-20. Lints Ens, west.</td></tr> </table> | Vienna, E. lon. 16-20. N. lat. 48-20. Lints Ens, west. |
| Vienna, E. lon. 16-20. N. lat. 48-20. Lints Ens, west. | | |

Chief towns.
on the Rhone,
56-40. N. lat. 50-50.
the Rhine.
on the Rhine, Af-
burg, on the Maine.
on the Moselle.
on the Rhine, an
city.

| | Division. | Chief towns. |
|-----------------|---------------------------|---|
| Duchies of | { Steira and Cilley, C. } | { Gratz, Cilley, S. E. |
| | { Carinthia — — } | { Glagenfurt, Lavemund, S. E. |
| | { Carniola — — } | { Laubach, Zerknits, Trieste, St. Veits, S. E. |
| County of Tyrol | { Goritia — — } | { Gorits, S. E. |
| Bishoprics of | { Brixen — — } | { Inspruck } S. W. on the |
| | { Trent — — } | { Brixen } confines of Italy |
| | | { Trent } and Switzerland |

8. BAVARIA CIRCLE.

gravestein
ents
znach
ingen.

| | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|---|---|--|
| Duchy of Bavaria Proper, on the Danube | } Subject to the elector of Ba- varia | { Munich, E. lon. 11-32. N. lat. 48-5. Landshut, Ingoldstat, N. W. Dona- wert, [Ratisbon] N. an im- perial city. |
| | | { Amberg, [Sultzbach] N. of the Danube, subject to the elec- tor Palatine. |
| Palatinate of Bavaria | | { Freisingen |
| Freisingen, subject to its bishop | _____ | { Freisingen |
| Bishopric of Passau, subject to its own bishop | _____ | { Passau, E. on the Danube. |
| Duchy of Neuberg, subj. to the elector Palatine | _____ | { Neuberg, W. on the Danube. |
| Archbishop of Salzburg, subject to its own archbishop | _____ | { Salzburg, S. E. Hallen. |

Chief towns.
Wurtzburg
Bemberg
Aichstat.
Cullen-
back
Onspach.
Chief towns.
Henneburgh
Coberg
Hilburghaufen
Nuremburg, an
imperial city.
Mergentheim.
Reineck
Bareith
Paperheim
Wertheim
Cassel
Schwartzenburg
middle
Holach.

9. SWABIA CIRCLE.

of Hungary.
own.
16-20.
Lints Ens,

| | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|--|--|--|
| Duchy of Wurtemberg, sub. to the duke of Wurtemberg | } Stutgard, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 48-40. Tubingen, Hailbron | { On, or near the Neckar. |
| | | { Baden Dourlach } On, or { Baden Weiller } near the Rhine. |
| Marqui- sates of | { Baden Baden } subject to their { Baden Dourlach } own respective margaves. | |
| Bishopric of Augsburg, subject to its own bishop | _____ | { Augsburg, an imperial city, Hockitet, Blenheim, on or near the Danube. |
| Territory of Ulm, a sovereign state | | { Ulm, on the Danube, an im- perial city. |
| Bishopric of Constance, subject to its own bishop under the house of Austria | | { Constance, on the lake of Constance. |
| Principa- lities of | { Mindelheim } | { Mindelheim, S. of Augsburg. |
| | { Furstenburg } | { Furstenburg, S. |
| | { Hohenzollern } | { Hohenzollern, S. |
| Counties of | { Oeting — — } | { Oeting, east |
| | { Konigsfeck — — } | { Koneckfeck, south-east |
| | { Hoehenrichburg — — } | { Gemuud, north |

| | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|-----------------------|---|---|---|------------------------------|
| Baronies of | { | Waldburg | — | — | } | Waldburg, south-east |
| | | Limpurg | — | — | } | Limpurg, north. |
| Abbies of | { | Kempten | — | — | } | Kempten, on the Iller |
| | | Buchaw | — | — | } | Buchaw, S. of the Danube |
| | | Lindaw | — | — | } | Lindaw, on the lake of Con- |
| | | | | | } | stance, imperial cities. |
| Imperial cities, or sovereign states | — | | | | } | Nordlingen, north of the Da- |
| | | | | | } | nube |
| | | | | | } | Memminghen, east |
| | | | | | } | Rotwell, on the Neckar, and |
| | | | | | } | many more. |
| Subject to the | { | Black forest, N. W. | | | } | Rhinefield and Lauffenburg |
| house of Au- | | Rhinefield C. | | | } | |
| stria | { | Marquifate of Burgaw | — | | } | Burgaw, east. |
| | | Territory of Brisgow, | | | } | |
| | | on the Rhine | — | | } | Friburgh and Brisac. |

NAME.] Great part of modern Germany lay in antient Gaul, as I have already mentioned; and the word Germany is of itself but modern. Many fanciful derivations have been given of the word; the most probable is, that it is compounded of *Ger*, or *Gar*, and *Man*; which, in the ancient Celtic, signifies a warlike man. The Germans, however, went by various other names, such as *Allemanni*, *Teutones*; which last is said to have been their most ancient designation; and the Germans themselves call their country *Teuchland*.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on account of the situation, north, east, south, and west, but according to the improvement of the soil, which has a vast effect upon the climate. The most mild and settled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal distance from the sea and the Alps. In the north it is sharp; towards the south it is more temperate.

The soil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture, and therefore in many places it is bare and sterile, though in others it is surprizingly fruitful. Agriculture, however, is daily improving, which must necessarily change the most barren parts of Germany greatly to their advantage. The reasons vary as much as the soil. In the south and western parts they are more regular than those that lie near the sea, or that abound with lakes and rivers. The north wind and the eastern blasts are unfavourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the seasons of Germany and those of Great-Britain.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and those which separate Saxony,

Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. Many other large tracts of mountains, however, are found in different parts of the empire.

FORESTS.] The vast passion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar, is the reason why perhaps there are more woods and chases yet standing in Germany than in most other countries. The Heraynian forest, which in Cæsar's time was nine days journey in length, and six in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Most of the woods are pine, fir, oak, and beech. There is a vast number of forests of less note in every part of this country; almost every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chase or park adorned with pleasure houses, and well stocked with game, viz. deer, of which there are seven or eight sorts, as roebucks, stags, &c. of all sizes and colours, and many of a vast growth; plenty of hares, conies, foxes, bears, wolves, and boars. They abound so much also with wild fowl, that in many places the peasants leave them and venison for their ordinary food.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] No country can boast a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head stands the Danube or Donaw, so called from the swiftness of the current, and which some pretend to be naturally the finest river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade it is so broad, that, in the wars between the Turks and Christians, ships of war have been engaged on it; and its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it passes is inconceivable. The Danube, however, contains a vast number of cataracts and whirlpools; its stream is rapid, and its course, without reckoning turnings or windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weser, and Moselle.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are those of Constance and Bregentz. Besides these are the Chiemsee, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Zecknitzer-see in the dutchy of Carniola, whose waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Besides those lakes and rivers, in some of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of standing water, which are next to pestilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable disorders.

MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS.] Germany is said to contain more of those than all Europe besides. All Europe has heard of the Spa waters, and those of Pymont. Those of Aix la Chapelle are still more noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little Bath, and the springs

of

of both are so hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they use them. Each of those, and many other waters have their partizans in the medical faculty, and if we are to believe all they say, they cure diseases internal and cutaneous, either by drinking or bathing. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wisbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, likewise perform their wonders in almost all diseases. The mineral springs at the last mentioned place are said to intoxicate as soon as wine, and therefore they are inclosed. Carlsbad and Baden baths have been described and recommended by many great physicians, and used with great success by many royal personages.

After all, many are of opinion that great part of the salutary virtues ascribed to these waters is owing to the exercises and amusements of the patients. It is the interest of the proprietors to provide for both; and many of the German princes feel the benefit of the many elegant and polite institutions for the diversion of the public. The neatness, cleanliness, and conveniency of the places of public resort are inconceivable; and though at first they are attended with expence, yet they more than pay themselves in a few years by the company which crowds to them from all parts of the world; many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amusement and conversation.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abounds in both. Bohemia, and many places in the circle of Austria, and other parts of Germany, contain mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, salt-mines, and salt-pits are found in Austria, Bavaria, Silesia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethysts, jasper, saphire, agate, alabaster, several sorts of pearls, turquois stones, and the finest of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greatest princes and virtuosi. In Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege are quarries of curious marble, slate, chalk, ochre, red lead, allum and bitumen; besides other fossils. In several places are dug up stones, which to a strong fancy represent different animals, and sometimes trees of the human form. Many of the German circles furnish coal-pits, and the *terra sigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, is thought to be an antidote against poison.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] These differ in Germany very little, if at all, from the countries I have already described; but naturalists are of opinion, that had the Germans, even before the middle of this century, been acquainted with agriculture, their country would have been the most fruitful of any in Europe. Even in its present, what we may

may call rude state, provisions are more cheap and plentiful in Germany than in any other country perhaps in the world; witness the prodigious armies which the most uncultivated part of it maintained during the late war, while many of the richest and most fertile provinces remained untouched.

The Rhenish and the Moselle wines differ from those of other countries in a peculiar lightness and detersive qualities, more sovereign in some diseases than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs. Their flesh, and the hams made of it is preferred by many, even to those of Westmoreland, for flavour and grain. The glutton of Germany is said to be the most voracious of all animals. Its prey is almost every thing that has life, which it can master, especially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; whom they surprize artfully and devour greedily. On these the glutton feeds so ravenously, that it falls into a kind of a torpid state, and not being able to move he is killed by the huntsmen; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horses; but their oxen and sheep are not comparable to those of England, probably owing to the want of skill in feeding and rearing them. Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine larks, and great variety of singing birds, which are sent to all parts of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } As the em-
CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } pire of Ger-
many is a collection of separate states, each having a different government and police, we can say little with precision as to the number of its inhabitants; but if they are fixed at twenty millions, the number is perhaps not exaggerated. When the landholders become better acquainted with agriculture and cultivation, population must naturally encrease among them.

The Germans in their persons are tall, fair, and strong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and some of them, especially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and shape that are so bewitching in some other countries; but this must be understood of the higher ranks.

Both men and women affect rich dresses, which in fashion are the same as in France and England; but the better sort of men are excessively fond of gold and silver lace, especially if they are in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dress from the French and English, only they are not so excessively fond of paint, as the former. At some courts they appear in rich furs, and all of them are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. The female part of the burghers families, in many of the German towns, dress in a

very different manner, and some of them inconceivably fantastic, as may be seen in many prints published in books of travels; but in this respect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dress from what they did thirty or forty years ago; as to the peasantry and labourers, they dress as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and opulence. The stoves made use of in Germany are the same with those already mentioned, in the northern nations, and are sometimes made portable, so that the ladies carry them to church. In Westphalia, and many other parts of Germany, they sleep between two feather-beds, with sheets stitched to them, which by use becomes a very comfortable practice. The most unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes; who squeeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but in general the circumstances of the common people are far preferable to those of the French.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honest, hospitable people, free from artifice and disguise. The higher orders are ridiculously proud of titles, ancestry, and shew. The Germans, in general, are thought to want animation, as their persons promise more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, especially the Italians, such as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things, both against the Turks and the French. The imperial arms have seldom made any remarkable figure against either of those two nations, or against the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This possibly might be owing to the arbitrary obstinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two last wars the Austrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Industry, application, and perseverance, are the great characteristics of the German nation, especially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible were they not visible, especially in watch and clock-making, jewelry, turnery, sculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, some of which I shall have occasion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjustly, owing to the vast plenty of their country in wine and provisions of every kind. But those practices seem now to be wearing out. At the greatest tables, though the guests drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repast is commonly finished by coffee, after three or four public toasts have been drank. But no people have more feasting at marriages, funerals, and birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of so much honour, that a sharper in other countries, especially in England, meets

with

with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than of any other nation.

The merchants and tradesmen are very civil and obliging. All the sons of noblemen inherit their fathers titles; which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogists of that country. This perhaps is one of the reasons why the German husbands are not quite so complaisant as they ought otherwise to be to their ladies, who are not entitled to any preeminence at the table; nor indeed do they seem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are said to be somewhat too fond of gaming. From what has been premised, it may easily be conceived, that many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary estate than a high sounding title, easily enter into their armies, and those of other sovereigns. Their fondness for title is attended with many other inconveniencies. Their princes think that the cultivation of their lands, though it may treble their revenue, is below their attention; and that, as they are a species of beings superior to labourers of every kind, they would demean themselves in being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

The domestic diversions of the Germans are the same as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In summer, people of fashion repair to places of public resort, and drink the waters. As to their field diversions, besides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriously, a great part of their time being spent in feasting and carousing; and in winter, when the several branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the ladies take their recreation in sledges of different shapes, such as griffins, tygers, swans, scollop-shells, &c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the sledge is drawn by one horse, stag, or other creature, set off with plumes of feathers, ribbons, and bells. As this diversion is taken chiefly in the night-time, servants ride before the sledge with torches, and a gentleman sitting on the sledge behind guides the horse.

RELIGION.] This is a copious article, but I shall confine myself to what is most necessary to be known. Before the reformation introduced by Luther, the German bishops were possessed (as indeed many of them are at this day) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the emperors as well as the people. Their ignorance was only equalled by their superstition. The Bohemians were the first who had an idea of reformation, and made so glorious a stand for many years against the errors of Rome, that they were indulged in the

liberty of taking the sacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the Romish church. This was in a great measure owing to Wickliff, an Englishman, who went much farther in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himself. Wickliff was seconded by John Hufe, and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithstanding the emperor's safe conduct, were infamously burnt at the council of Constance.

The reformation introduced afterwards by Luther*, of which we have spoke in the introduction, though it struck at the chief abuses in the church of Rome, was thought in some points (particularly that of consubstantiation, by which the real body of Christ, as well as the elements of bread and wine, is supposed to be taken in the sacrament) to be imperfect. Calvinism †, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as now practised in the church of Scotland) was introduced into Germany, and is now the religion of the king of Prussia, the landgrave of Hesse, and some other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some go so far as to say that the numbers of protestants and papists in the empire are now almost equal. Germany, particularly Bohemia, Moravia, and the Palatinate, is overrun with sectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empire. At present, the modes of worship and forms of church government are by the protestant German princes considered in a civil rather than a religious light. The protestant clergy are learned and exemplary in their deportment, but the popish ignorant and libertine.

ARCHBISHOPSEES AND BISHOPSEES.] These are differently represented by authors, some of whom represent Vienna as being a suffragan to the archbishopsee of Salzburg; and others as being an archbishopric but depending immediately upon the pope. The others are the archbishop of Mentz, who has under him twelve suffragans, but one of them, the bishop of Bamberg, is said to be exempted from his jurisdiction; —Triers has three suffragans; —Cologne has four; —Magdeburg has five; Salzburg has nine, besides Vienna; —and Bremen three.

At different periods since the reformation it has been found expedient, to satisfy the claims of temporal princes, to secularize the following bishopsees, Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Minden, Osnaburg, (which goes alternately to the houses of Bavaria and Hanover, and is at present held by his Britannic

* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483, began to dispute the doctrines of the Romish church 1517, and died 1546, in the 63d year of his age.

† John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that kingdom, he settled at Geneva in 1539, where he established a new form of church discipline, which was soon after embraced by several nations and states, who are now denominated Calvinists, or Presbyterians. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.

Britannic majesty's second son) and Lubec. Such of those sees as were archbishoprics are now considered as duchies, and the bishoprics as principalities.

LANGUAGE.] The Teutonic part of the German tongue is an original language, and has no relation to the Celtic. It is called High Dutch, and is the mother tongue of all Germany; but varies so much in its dialect, that the people of one province scarcely understand those of another. Latin and French are the most useful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.

The German Pater-Noster is as follows: *Unser Vater, du bist in himmel; geheiliget wer dein name: zukomm uns dein reich: dein wille geschehe auf erden, wie in himmel; unser tæglich brod gib uns heut; und vergib uns unser schuld als wir vergeben unsern sculdigern; und fuerro uns nicht in versuchung sondern elase uns von uebel.* Amen.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, } No country has produced
AND UNIVERSITIES. } a greater variety of authors
than Germany, and there is no where a more general taste for reading, especially in the protestant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; every man of letters is an author; they multiply books without number, thousands of theses and disputations are annually published; for no man can be a graduate in their universities, who has not published one dissertation at least. In this country there are 36 universities, of which 17 are protestant, 17 Roman-catholic, and two mixed; besides a vast number of colleges, gymnasia, pedagogies, and Latin schools. There are also many academies and societies for the promoting the study of natural philosophy, the belles lettres, antiquities, &c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the *natura curiosa*; the academy of sciences at Berlin, at Gottingen, at Erfurth, at Leipzig, at Duisburgh, to which we may add the Latin society at Gena. Of the public libraries, the most celebrated are those of Vienna, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Gottingen, Weimar, and the council library at Leipzig. The Germans have written largely upon the Roman and Canon laws; Stahl, Van Swieten, Storck, and Hoffman, have contributed greatly to the improvement of physic; Ruvinus and Dillenius of botany; Heister of anatomy and surgery; Newinan, Zewermann, Pott, and Margraff, of chymistry. In philosophy, natural and moral, the reputation of Leibnitz, Wolfius, Puffendorf, Thomassius, Otto van Guericke, and Kepler, is great. Every prince, baron, and gentleman in Germany is a chymist or natural philosopher. Germany has also produced good political writers, geographers, and historians, of whom Bushing is the most voluminous; but they

seem to have no great taste or capacity for works of wit and entertainment, as poetry, plays, romances, and novels, or what is called the belles lettres; but they have had some good critics and antiquarians. They have one great defect, however, in all their writings, namely, that they are extremely prolix, dry, voluminous, and mechanical, and know little or nothing of that valuable art in which some nations excel, namely, of enlivening their performances, and mixing the pleasant with the useful. With respect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themselves admirably well. Germany has produced some good painters, architects, sculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the first inventors of engraving, etching, and metzotinto, as well as of gunpowder, guns and printing. For the improvement of some of these arts academies have been established in several parts of Germany; at Vienna, in particular, and Dresden are academies for painting, sculpture and architecture; at Drossen and Nurenberg are academies for painting; and at Aulburgh is the Imperial Franciscan academy of the fine arts. Germany has likewise produced some excellent musicians; Handel, Bach, and Haffe, of whom Handel stands at the head; and it is acknowledged that he arrived at the sublime of music, but he had not the smallest idea between music and sentimental expression.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE;
with occasional estimates of RE-
VENUES AND POPULATION.

This is a copious head in all countries, but more particularly so in Germany, on account of the numerous independent states it contains. The reader therefore must be contented with the mention of the most capital places and their peculiarities.

Though Berlin is accounted the capital of all his Prussian majesty's dominions, and exhibits perhaps the most illustrious example of sudden improvement that this age can boast of; yet, during the late war, it was found a place of no strength, and fell twice, almost without resistance, into the hands of the Austrians, who, had it not been for the politeness of their generals, and their love of the fine arts, which always preserves mankind from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled it to the ground.

Berlin lies on the river Spree, and, besides a royal palace, has many other superb palaces; it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Calvinist churches, besides a popish one. Its streets and squares are spacious; its manufacturers of all kinds are numerous, and well provided: it abounds with theatres, schools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number

of its inhabitants, according to Busching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garrison. In the same year, and according to the same author, there were no fewer than, 443 silk-looms, 149 of half-silks, 2858 looms for woollen stuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for silk stockings, and 310 for worsted ones. They have here manufactures of tapestry, gold and silver lace, and mirrors.

The electorate of Saxony is by nature the richest country in Germany, if not in Europe: it contains 210 walled towns, 61 market towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the latest accounts of the Germans themselves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief) and the revenue, estimating each rix-dollar at four shillings and sixpence, amounts to 1,350,000*l*. This sum is so moderate, when compared to the richness of the soil, which, if we are to believe Dr. Busching, produces even diamonds, and almost all the precious stones to be found in the East-Indies and elsewhere, and the variety of splendid manufactures, that I am apt to believe the Saxon princes to have been the most moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

We can say little more, than has been already said of all fine cities, of Dresden, the elector of Saxony's capital, that its fortifications, palaces, public buildings, churches, and charitable foundations; and above all, its suburbs are magnificent beyond all expression; that it is beautifully situated on both sides the Elbe; and that it is the school of Germany, for statuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dresden, by the latest accounts, amount to 110,000.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, stands on the river Leine, but is of no great consideration. It contains about 1,200 houses, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on some manufactures; and in its neighbourhood lies the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhausen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about 750,000 people, who live in 58 cities, and 60 market towns, besides villages. The city and suburbs of Bremen, belonging by purchase to the said elector, contains about 50,000 inhabitants, and has a considerable trade by the Weiser. The other towns belonging to the said electorate have trade and manufactures; but, in general, it must be remarked, that the electorate has suffered greatly by the accession of the Hanover family to the crown of Great-Britain. I shall here just mention,

on account of its relation to our royal family, the secularized bishopric of Osnaburg, lying between the rivers Wefer and Ems. The chief city, Osnaburg, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the duchy, and for the manufacture of the best Westphalia hams. The whole revenue of the bishopric amounts to about 30,000 l.

Breslau, the capital of Silesia, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all sects of Christians and Jews are tolerated, but the magistracy is Lutheran. Since Silesia fell under the Prussian dominion, its trade is greatly improved, though very inconsiderable before. The manufactures of Silesia, which principally center at Breslau, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is by some said to bring his Prussian majesty in near a million sterling; but this sum seems to be exaggerated, if, as other authors of good note write, it never brought into the house of Austria above 500,000 l. yearly.

Vienna is the capital of the circle of Austria, and being the residence of the emperor, is supposed to be the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a strong city, and the princes of the house of Austria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. The two Austrias, and the hereditary dominions of that house, are by nature so well furnished with all materials for the luxuries, the conveniencies, and the necessaries of life, that foreign importations into this city are almost totally prohibited. Vienna contains an excellent university, a bank, which is in the management of her own magistrates, and a court of commerce immediately subject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a sixth part of the town; but the suburbs are larger than the city. It would be endless to enumerate the many palaces, two of which are imperial, of this capital; its squares, academies, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curiosities. Among its rich convents is one for the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman St. Colman, the patron of Austria; and one of the six gates of this city is called the Scots gate, in remembrance of some notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants, if we are to believe Dr. Busching, are between 180,000 and 200,000; and the encouragement given them by their sovereigns, has rendered Vienna the rendezvous of all the nations round.

After all that has been said of this magnificent city, the most candid and sensible of those who have visited it, are far from being lavish in its praise. The streets, excepting some
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in the suburbs, are narrow and dirty; the houses and furniture of the citizens are greatly disproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, squares, and other public buildings; but above all, the excessive imposts laid by the house of Austria upon every commodity in its dominions, must always keep the manufacturing part of their subjects poor. His present imperial majesty seems to be sensible of truths which were plain to all the world but his predecessors and their counsellors: he examines things with his own eyes, and has descended from that haughtiness of demeanour which rendered the imperial court so long disagreeable, and indeed ridiculous, to the rest of Europe. In general, the condition of the Austrian subjects has been greatly meliorated since his accession to the imperial throne; but in this he acts agreeably to the sentiments of his mother, who is the immediate possessor of those vast dominions.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES } I have, in describing
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } the mineral and other
springs, anticipated great part of this article, which is of itself very copious. Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of curiosities, artificial and natural, antient and modern. The tun at Heidelberg holds 800 hogheads, and is generally full of the best Rhenish wine, from which strangers are seldom suffered to retire sober. Vienna itself is a curiosity; for here you see the greatest variety of inhabitants that is to be met with any where, as Greeks, Transylvanians, Slavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The imperial library at Vienna, is a great literary rarity on account of its ancient manuscripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuscripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Armenian, Coptic, and Chinese; but the antiquity of some of them is questionable, particularly a New Testament in Greek, said to have been written 1,500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple. Here are likewise many thousand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vast collection of other curiosities in art and nature. The vast Gothic palaces, cathedrals, castles, and above all, town-houses, in Germany, are very curious: they strike the beholder with an idea of rude magnificence; and sometimes they have an effect that is preferable even to Greek architecture. The chief houses in great cities and villages have the same appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and their fortifications generally consist of a brick-wall, trenches filled with water, and bastions or half-moons.

Next

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curiosities of Germany. Mention is made of a cave, near Blackenburg in Harz-forest, of which none have yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for 20 miles; but the most remarkable curiosity of that kind is near Hammelen, about 30 miles from Hanover, where at the mouth of a cave stands a monument which commemorates the loss of 130 children, who were there swallowed up, in 1284. Though this fact is very strongly attested, it has been disputed by some critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly representing two monks in their proper habits; and of many stones which seem to be petrifications of fishes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

[COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Germany has vast advantages in point of commerce, from its situation, in the heart of Europe, and perforated as it were with great rivers. Its native materials for commerce (besides the mines and minerals I have already mentioned) are hemp, hops, flax, anise, cummins, tobacco, saffron, madder, truffles, variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, and fine fruits, equal to those of France and Italy. Germany exports to other countries corn, tobacco, horses, lean cattle, butter, cheese, honey, wax, wines, linen, and woollen, yarn, ribbons, silk and cotton stuffs, toys, turnery wares in wood, metals, and ivory, goatskins, wool, timber, both for ship-building and houses, cannon, and bullets, bombs and bomb-shells, iron plates and stoves, tinned plates, steel work, copper, brass-wire, porcelain, the finest upon earth, earthen-ware, glasses, mirrors, hog's bristles, mum, beer, tartar, smalts, zaffer, Prussian blue, printer's ink, and many other things. Some think that the balance of trade between England and Germany is to the disadvantage of the former; but others are of a different opinion, as they cannot import coarse woollen manufactures, and several other commodities, so cheap from any other country.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes, by Lewis XIV. which obliged the French protestants to settle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite service to the German manufactures. They now make velvets, silks, stuffs of all kinds, fine and coarse; linen and thread, and every thing necessary for wear, to great perfection. The porcelain of Meissen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, exceed that of all the world.

[TRADING COMPANIES.] The Asiatic company of Embden, established by his present Prussian majesty, is, exclusive of the Hanseatic league, the only commercial company in
Germany;

Germany; but in the great cities very large extensive partnerships in trade subsist.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Almost every prince in Germany (and there are about 300 of them) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own estates, but the whole of them form a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor, and whose power in the collective body or the diet, is not directorial but executive, and even that gives him vast influence. The supreme power in Germany is in the diet, which is composed of the emperor, or in his absence, of his commissary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The first of these is the electoral college; the second is the college of princes; and the third, the college of imperial towns.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for some centuries belonged to the house of Austria, as being the most powerful of the German princes; but by French management upon the death of Charles VI. grandfather, by the mother's side, to the present emperor, the elector of Bavaria was chosen to that dignity, and died, as is supposed, of heart-break, after a short uncomfortable reign. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation he signs at his election; and the person, who in his life-time is chosen king of the Romans, succeeds without a new election to the empire. He can confer titles and enfranchisements upon cities and towns, but as emperor he can levy no taxes, nor make war nor peace without the consent of the diet. When that consent is obtained, every prince must contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though perhaps, as an elector or prince, he may espouse a different side from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German constitution, for George II. of England was obliged to furnish his quota against the house of Austria, and the king of Prussia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedency for his ambassadors in all christian courts.

The electors of the empire are nine in number. Each has a particular office in the imperial court, and they have the sole election of the emperor. They are in order,

First, The archbishop of Mentz, who is high chancellor of the empire when in Germany.

Second, The archbishop of Treves, who is high chancellor of the empire in France.

Third, The archbishop of Cologne, who is the same in Italy.

The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer.

The

The elector of Bavaria, who is grand sewer, or officer who serves out the feasts.

The elector of Saxony, who is great marshal of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburg (now king of Prussia) who is great chamberlain.

The elector Palatine, who is great steward; and,

The elector of Hanover, (king of Great-Britain) who claims the part of arch-treasurer.

It is necessary for the emperor before he calls a diet to have the advice of those members; and during the vacancy of the imperial throne the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have jurisdiction, the former over the northern, and the latter over the southern circles.

The ecclesiastical princes are as absolute as the temporal ones in their several dominions. The chief of these, besides the three ecclesiastical electors already mentioned, are the archbishop of Saltzburg, the bishops of Liege, Munster, Spire, Worms, Wirtzburg, Strasburg, Osnaburg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Besides these are many other ecclesiastical princes. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbees, whose jurisdictions are likewise absolute; and some of them very considerable, and all of them are chosen by their several chapters. The chief of the secular princes are the landgrave of Hesse, the dukes of Brunswick Wolfenbuttel, Wirtemberg, Mecklenburgh, Saxe-Gotha, the marquises of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Nassau, Anhalt, Furstenburg, and many others, who have all high titles, and are sovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewise sovereign states; those which are imperial, or compose a part of the diet, bear the imperial eagle in their arms; those which are Hanse-towns, of which we have spoken in the Introduction, have still great privileges and immunities, but they subsist no longer as a political body.

The imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the Aulic-council, are the two supreme courts for determining the great causes of the empire, arising between its respective members. The imperial council consists of 50 judges or assessors. The president and four of them are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chuse one, and the other princes and states the rest. This court is at present held at Wetzlar, but formerly it resided at Spire; and causes may be brought before it by appeal. The aulic-council was originally no better than a revenue court of the dominions of the house of Austria. As that family's power encreased, the jurisdiction of the aulic-council was extended; and at last, to the great disgust of the princes of the empire, it usurped upon the powers

powers of the imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It consists, of a president, a vice-chancellor, a vice-president, and a certain number of aulic-counsellors, of whom six are protestants, besides other officers, but the emperor in fact is master of the court.

These courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Passau, and the civil law.

Besides these courts of justice, each of the nine circles I have already mentioned has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. These directors are commonly as follow. For Westphalia, the bishop of Munster, or duke of Neuburg. For Lower Saxony, the elector of Hanover or Brandenburg. For Upper Saxony, the elector of Saxony. For the Lower Rhine, the archbishop of Mentz. For the Upper Rhine, the elector Palatine or bishop of Worms. For Franconia, the bishop of Bamberg, or marquis of Culmbach. For Suabia, the duke of Wirtemberg, or bishop of Constance. For Bavaria, the elector of Bavaria, or archbishop of Saltzburg; and for Austria, the archduke of Austria, his imperial majesty.

After, upon any great emergency, the votes of the diet are collected, and sentence pronounced, the emperor by his prerogative commits the execution of it to a particular prince or princess, whose troops live at free quarter upon the estates of the delinquent party, and he is obliged to make good all expences; upon the whole, the constitution of the Germanic body is of itself a study of no small difficulty. But however plausibly invented the several checks upon the imperial power may be, it is certain that the house of Austria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, and that they have been saved by France. At present a great power, the house of Brandenburg, has started up to balance the Austrian greatness; and there seems to be no great appearance of any internal commotions among the princes of the empire, a circumstance that is extremely favourable to the tranquillity of Europe, and the interest of Great-Britain in particular. Before I close this head, it may be necessary to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which has of late frequently appeared in the German history, I mean that of the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This is no other than a provision made by the emperor Charles VI. for preserving the indivisibility of the Austrian dominions in the person of the next descendant of the last possessor, whether male or female. This provision has been often disputed by other branches of the house of Austria, who have been occasionally supported by France from political views, though the
pragmatic

pragmatic sanction is strongly guaranteed by almost all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland attempted to overthrow it, as being descended from the daughters of the emperor Joseph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewise been again and again opposed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are so large as to be assigned to viceroys, to be oppressed and fleeced at pleasure; nor are they without redress when they suffer any grievance; they may appeal to the general diet or great council of the empire for relief. Whereas in France the lives and fortunes of the subject are entirely at the disposal of the grand monarch. The subjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the most unhappy; for these princes, affecting the grandeur and splendor of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domestics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curiosities, guards, bands of music, tables, dress, and furniture, are obliged to support all this vain pomp and parade at the expence of their vassals and dependants. With respect to the burghers and peasants of Germany, the former in many places enjoy great privileges; the latter also, in some parts, for instance, in Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain services to their superiors, and only pay taxes; whereas in the marquisate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Lusatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Austria, &c. they may justly be denominated slaves, though in different degrees.

REVENUES.] The only revenue falling under this head is that of the emperor, who as such has an annual income of about 5 or 6000 pounds sterling, arising from some inconsiderable fiefs in the Black Forest. The Austrian revenues are immense, and are thought to amount to 7,000,000 sterling in Germany and Italy, a sum that goes far in those countries. The late king of Prussia, whose revenues were not near so extensive as those of his present majesty, though he maintained a large army, was so good an œconomist that he left 7,000,000 sterling in his coffers; and some have thought that Silesia alone brings half a million sterling every year to this king. To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a stranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes, which is owing to the high price of money in that country, and consequently the low price of provisions and manufactures. In fact, though it is plain that some princes have much larger revenues than others, yet we cannot speak with any tolerable precision on a subject of such variety
and

and uncertainty, and which comprehends so many independent states.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] During the two last wars, very little regard was paid, in carrying them on, to the ancient German constitutions, the whole management being engrossed by the head of the house of Austria. The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matriculation book or register, which among other letters contain the assessments of men and money, which every prince and state, who are members of the empire, is to advance when the army of the empire takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly assessments paid to the emperors when they visited Rome. Those assessments however are subject to great mutability. It is sufficient here to say, that upon a moderate computation the secular princes of the empire can bring to the field 379,000 men, and the ecclesiastical 74,500, in all 453,500; of those the emperor, as head of the house of Austria, is supposed to furnish 90,000.

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| The elector of Mentz may maintain | — | — | 6000 |
| The elector of Triers | — | — | 6000 |
| The elector of Cologne | — | — | 6000 |
| The bishop of Munster | — | — | 8000 |
| The bishop of Liege | — | — | 8000 |
| The archbishop of Saltzburg | — | — | 8000 |
| The bishop of Wurtzburg | — | — | 2000 |
| The bishop of Bamberg | — | — | 5000 |
| The bishop of Paderborn | — | — | 3000 |
| The bishop of Osnabrug | — | — | 2500 |
| The abbot of Fulda | — | — | 6000 |
| The other bishoprics of the empire | — | — | 6000 |
| The abbies and provostships of the empire | — | — | 8000 |

Total of the ecclesiastical princes — — 74,500

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|---|---|---|-------|
| The emperor, for Hungary | — | — | 30000 |
| ————— For Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia | — | — | 30000 |
| ————— For Austria, and other dominions | — | — | 30000 |
| The king of Prussia | — | — | 40000 |
| The elector of Saxony | — | — | 25000 |
| The elector Palatine | — | — | 15000 |
| The duke of Wirtemberg | — | — | 15000 |
| The landgrave of Hesse Cassel | — | — | 15000 |
| The prince of Baden | — | — | 10000 |
| The elector of Hanover | — | — | 30000 |
| The duke of Holstein | — | — | 12000 |
| The duke of Mecklenburg | — | — | 15000 |

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| The prince of Anhalt | _____ | — | — | 6000 |
| The prince of Lawenburg | _____ | _____ | _____ | 6000 |
| The elector of Bavaria | _____ | — | — | 30000 |
| The dukes of Saxony | _____ | _____ | — | 10000 |
| The prince of Nassau | _____ | _____ | — | 10000 |
| The other princes and imperial towns | _____ | — | — | 50000 |
| | | | | <hr/> |
| The secular princes | _____ | _____ | | 379000 |
| The ecclesiastical princes | _____ | — | — | 74500 |
| | | | | <hr/> |

453,500

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER } The emperor of Ger-
 TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. } many pretends to be
 successor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that
 account, been admitted to a tacit precedence on all public
 occasions among the powers of Europe. Austria is but an
 archdukedom; nor has he, as the head of that house, a vote
 in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia.
 Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baro-
 nies, and the like, with which he is vested as archduke. The
 arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads, hover-
 ing, with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the
 heads of the eagle is seen the imperial crown. It would be
 equally useless as difficult to enumerate all the different quar-
 terings and armorial bearings of the archducal family. Every
 elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance
 in Germany, claims a right of instituting orders; but the
 emperors pretend that they are not admissible unless confirmed
 by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings
 of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleece, as descended
 from the house of Burgundy. The empress dowager Eleonora,
 in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female
 knights; and the present empress-queen instituted the order of
 St. Teresa.

HISTORY.] The manners of the ancient Germans are
 described by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Ro-
 man historian. They were a brave and independant race of
 men, and peculiarly distinguished by their love of liberty and
 arms. They opposed the force of the Roman empire, not in
 its origin or in its decline, but after it had arrived at matu-
 rity, and still continued in its full vigour. The country was
 divided into a number of principalities, independant of each
 other, though occasionally connected by a military union for
 defending themselves against such enemies as threatened the
 liberty of them all. In this situation Germany remained,
 notwithstanding the efforts of particular chieftains, or princes,

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to reduce the rest into subjection, until the beginning of the ninth century: then it was that Charlemagne, one of those excentric and superior geniusses who sometimes start up in a barbarous age, first extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. The posterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany until the year 880, at which time the different princes assuming their original independence, rejected the Carlovian line, and placed Arnulph, king of Bavaria, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been considered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their interest and arms, have mounted the throne. Of these, the most considerable, until the Austrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houses of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of these emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the contests between them and the popes. From hence, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, arose the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, of which the former was attached to the popes, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their virulence and inveteracy, tended to disquiet the empire for several ages. The emperors too were often at war with the infidels, and sometimes, as happens in all elective kingdoms, with one another about the succession. But what more deserves the attention of a judicious reader than all those noisy but uninteresting disputes, is the progress of government in Germany, which was in some measure opposite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire, raised by Charlemagne, fell asunder, all the different independent princes assumed the right of election; and those now distinguished by the name of electors, had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a successor to the imperial throne: they were only the officers of the king's household, his secretary, his steward, chaplain, marshal, or master of his horse, &c. By degrees, however, as they lived near the king's person, and had, like all the other princes, independant territories belonging to them, they encreased their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. 984, acquired the sole right of electing the emperor. Thus while in the other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial, or independant barons, was diminished by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raised upon the ruins of the emperor's supremacy, and of the peoples jurisdiction. In 1440, Frederic III. duke of Austria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in

the male line of that family for three hundred years. His successor, Maximilian, married the heiress of Charles, duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the house of Austria. Charles V. grandson of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards, and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in several parts of Germany, which however was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Westphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually disturbed by his wars with the German princes and French king, Francis I. Though successful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune, towards the conclusion of it, began to forsake him; which, with other reasons, occasioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I. who in 1558 succeeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the address to get his son Maximilian declared king of the Romans in his own life time, and died in 1564. By his last will he ordered, that if either his own male issue, or that of his brother Charles, should fail, his Austrian estates should revert to his second daughter, Anne, wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her issue. I mention this destination, as it gave rise to the late opposition made by the house of Bavaria to the pragmatic sanction, in favour of the empress-queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was disturbed with internal commotions, and an invasion from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576. He was succeeded by his son Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Austria in his life time. He was succeeded in the empire by Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans and Calvinists, were so much divided among themselves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias, at last, reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial commissaries out of a window at Prague. This gave rise to a ruinous war which lasted thirty years. Matthias thought to have exterminated both parties, but they formed a confederacy, called the Evangelic League, which was counterbalanced by a catholic league.

Matthias dying in 1618, was succeeded by his cousin, Ferdinand II. but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic the elector Palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, and son-in-law to his Britannic majesty James I.

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That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown ; but he lost it, by being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle of Prague, and he himself was deprived of his electorate, the best part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The protestant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with wonderful obstinacy ; among them were the margrave of Baden Durlach ; Christian, duke of Brunswic, and count Mansfeld : the last was one of the best generals of the age. Christiern IV. king of Denmark, declared for them ; and Richelieu, the French minister, was not fond of seeing the house of Austria aggrandized. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals ; and Christiern, having put himself at the head of the evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialist of great reputation in war. Ferdinand made so moderate a use of his advantages obtained over the protestants, that they formed a fresh confederacy at Leipsic, of which the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. I have already described his amazing victories and progress, when he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. But the protestant cause did not die with him. He had brought up a set of heroes, such as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Torstenson, Bannier and others, who shook the Austrian power, till under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munster, in the year 1648 ; which forms the basis of the present political system of Europe.

Ferdinand II. was succeeded by his son Ferdinand III. who died in 1657, and was succeeded by the emperor Leopold, a severe, unamiable, and not very fortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with, France on the one side, and the Turks on the other ; and was a loser in his war with both. France took from him Alsace, and many other frontier places of the empire ; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the siege been raised by John Sobieski, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms about the year 1697 ; and being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the first checks they received in Hungary. The empire, however, could not have withstood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy against the French power, the consequences of which have been already described. The Hungarians, secretly encouraged by the French, and exasperated by the

unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were still in arms, under the protection of the Porte, when that prince died in 1705.

He was succeeded by his son Joseph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill served by prince Lewis of Baden, general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough had not all the success he expected or deserved. Joseph himself was suspected of a design to subvert the Germanic liberties; and it was plain by his conduct, that he expected England should take the labouring oar in the war, which was to be entirely carried on for his benefit. The English were disgusted at his slowness and selfishness; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male issue, he was succeeded in the empire by his brother, Charles VI. whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in opposition to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place in 1713, Charles at first made a shew as if he would continue the war, but found himself unable, now that he was forsaken by the English. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France at Baden in 1714, that he might attend the progress of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another of equal importance from the same general in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialists; and next year the peace of Passarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles employed every minute of his leisure in making arrangements for increasing and preserving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the house of Hanover, an event which gave him a very decisive weight in Europe, by the connections between George I. and II. in the empire. Charles was sensible of this, and carried matters with so high a hand, that about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach ensued between him and George I. and so unsteady was the system of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones contradictory to their interest. Without entering into particulars, it is sufficient to observe, that the safety of Hanover, and its aggrandizement, was the main object of the British court; as that of the emperor was the establishment of the pragmatic sanction, in favour of his daughter, the present empress queen, he having no male issue. Mutual concessions upon those great points, restored a good understanding between
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George II. and the emperor Charles ; and the elector of Saxony being prevailed upon by the purport of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquished the great claims he had upon the Austrian succession.

The emperor, after this, had very bad success in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himself for the great sacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the house of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he had no general to supply his place. The system of France, however, under cardinal Fleury, happened at that time to be pacific, and she obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace, than he had reason to expect. Charles, to keep the German and other European powers easy, had, before his death, given his eldest daughter, the present empress-queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorraine, a prince who could bring no accession of power to the Austrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no sooner in the grave, than all he had so long laboured for must have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmness of George II. The pragmatic sanction was attacked on all hands. The young king of Prussia entered, and conquered with an irresistible army, Silesia, which he said had been wrongfully dismembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria set up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic sanction, and in this they were joined by France ; though all those powers had solemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne, after a considerable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague ; and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Prussia, was forced to cede to that prince the most valuable part of the duchy of Silesia by a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and sufferings, and the noble fortitude with which she bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, into whose arms she threw herself and her little son ; and though they had been always remarkable for their disaffection to the house of Austria, they declared unanimously in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia ; and George II. at the head of an English and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time miserable on the imperial throne, and would have given the queen of Hungary almost her own terms ; but she haughtily and impolitely rejected all accommodation, though advised to it by his Britannic majesty, her best, and indeed only friend. This obstinacy gave a colour for the king

of Prussia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of supporting the imperial dignity: but though he took Prague, and subdued the greatest part of the kingdom, he was not supported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conquests, and retired to Silesia. This event confirmed the obstinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that she might recover Silesia. Soon after, his imperial majesty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorraine, then grand duke of Tuscany, consort to her Hungarian majesty, after surmounting some difficulties, was chosen emperor.

The bad success of the allies against the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loss of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empress-queen against his Prussian majesty. The latter beat the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorraine, who had before driven the Prussians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empress-queen was such, that his Britannic majesty thought proper to guarantee to him the possession of Silesia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Prussian majesty pretended that he had discovered a secret convention which had been entered into between the empress-queen, the empress of Russia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to strip him of his dominions, and to divide them among themselves. Upon this his Prussian majesty, all of a sudden, drove the king of Poland out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took possession of Dresden; which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majesty, by which the king of Prussia acknowledged the duke of Lorraine, now great duke of Tuscany, for emperor. The war, however, continued in the Low Countries, not only to the disadvantage, but to the discredit of the Austrians and Dutch, till it was finished by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April 1748. By that treaty, Silesia was once more guaranteed to the king of Prussia. It was not long before that monarch's jealousies were renewed and verified; and the empress of Russia's views falling in with those of the empress-queen, and the king of Poland, who were unaturally supported by France in their new schemes, a fresh war was kindled in the empire. The king of Prussia declared against the admission of the Russians into Germany, and his Britannic majesty against that of the French. Upon those two principles all former differences between these monarchs were forgotten, and the British parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 670,000 l. to his Prussian majesty during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now rekindled with more fury than ever.

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His Prussian majesty once more broke into Saxony, defeated the imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowolitz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almost impreg- nably fortified at Pirna, and the elector of Saxony fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, his Prussian ma- jesty was put to the ban of the empire ; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Russians did by another, into the empire. The conduct of his Prussian ma- jesty on this occasion is the most amazing that is to be met with in history. He broke once more into Bohemia with in- conceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of near 100,000 Austrians, under general Brown, who was killed, as the brave marshal Schwerin was on the side of the Prussians. He then besieged Prague, and plied it with a most tremendous artillery ; but just as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Collin, by the Austrian general Daun, and obliged to raise the siege, and to fall back upon Eifenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The imperialists, under count Daun, were formed into excellent troops : but they were beat at the battle of Lissa, and the Prussians took Breslau, and obtained many other great advantages. The Russians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the aspect of the war ; and the cautious, yet enterprizing genius of count Daun, laid his Prussian majesty under infinite difficulties, notwithstanding all his amazing victories. At first he defeated the Russians at Zorndorff ; but an attack made upon his army, in the night time, by count Daun, at Hockkirchen, had almost proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable presence of mind. He was obliged, however, to sacrifice Saxony, for the safety of Silesia ; and it has been observed that few periods of history afford such room for reflection as this campaign did ; six sieges were raised almost at the same time ; that of Colberg, by the Russians ; that of Leipzig, by the duke of Deux-Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire ; that of Dresden, by Daun ; those of Neiss, Cosel, and Torgau, by the Austrians.

Brevity obliges me to omit many capital scenes which passed at the same time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the English, or their allies. The operations on both sides are of little importance to history, because nothing was done that was decisive, though extremely burdensome and bloody to Great-Britain. It falls more within my plan to mention the ingratitude of the empress-queen to his Britannic majesty, and his allies and generals, who were threat- ened with the ban of the empire. The Russians had taken pos-

session of all the kingdom of Prussia, and laid siege to Colberg, the only port of his Prussian majesty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Russians, but he soon found them by far the most formidable enemies he had, as they were advancing, under count Soltikoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Silesia. In this distress he acted with a courage and resolution that bordered upon despair, but was, at last, totally defeated by the Russians, with the loss of 20,000 of his best men, in a battle near Frankfort. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats seemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were shut up. He had lost, since the first of October 1756, the great marshal Keith, and 40 brave generals, besides those who were wounded and made prisoners. At Landshut the imperial general, Laudohn, defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Austrians a ready gate into Silesia. None but his Prussian majesty would have thought of continuing the war under such repeated losses; but every defeat he received seemed to give him fresh spirits. It is not perhaps very easy to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, but by the jealousy which the imperial generals entertained of their Russian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contributions; but towards the end of the campaign, he defeated the imperialists in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was wounded. This was the best fought action the king of Prussia had ever been engaged in, but it cost him 10,000 of his best troops, and was attended with no great consequences in his favour. New reinforcements which arrived every day from Russia, the taking of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrian, was on the point of completing his ruin, when his most formidable enemy, the empress of Russia, died, January 5, 1762; George II. had died on the 25th of October, 1760.

The deaths of those illustrious personages were followed by great consequences. The British ministry of George III. fought to finish the war with honour, and the new emperor of Russia recalled his armies. His Prussian majesty was, notwithstanding, so very much reduced by his losses, that the empress-queen, probably, would have completed his destruction, had it not been for the wise backwardness of the other German princes, not to annihilate the house of Brandenburg. At first the empress-queen rejected all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The visible backwardness of her generals to execute her orders, and the successes obtained by his Prussian majesty, at last prevailed upon

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upon her to agree to an armistice, which was soon followed by the treaty of Hubertsburg, which secured to his Prussian majesty the possession of Silesia. Upon the death of the emperor, her husband, in 1765, her son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded him in the empire. The imperial court has formed several arrangements of distinct sovereignties in the Austrian family out of their Italian dominions, and seem at present to cultivate a pacific system both in the empire and all over Europe. His imperial majesty, though young, has discovered great talents for government. He has paid a visit, incognito, and with moderate attendance, to Rome, and the principal courts of Italy, and has had a personal interview with his Prussian majesty; all which circumstances indicate that he is determined to be his own master, and not to be imposed upon by his ministers*.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY
DUCAL PRUSSIA.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES } THIS country is bounded
AND EXTENT. } to the north by part of
Samogitia; to the south, by Poland Proper and Masovia; to
the east, by part of Lithuania; and to the west, by Polish
Prussia and the Baltic. Its greatest length is about 160 miles,
and breadth about 100.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, } The name of Prussia is
AND RIVERS. } evidently derived from the
Borussi, the antient inhabitants of the country. The air,
upon the whole, is wholesome, and the soil fruitful in corn
and other commodities, and affords plenty of pit-coal and
fuel. Its animal productions are horses, sheep, deer, and
game; bears, wolves, wild boars, and foxes. Its rivers and
lakes are well stored with fishes; and amber, which is thought
to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found on its
coasts towards the Baltic. The woods furnish the inhabitants
with wax, honey, and pitch, besides quantities of pot-ashes.
The rivers here sometimes do damage by inundations, and the
principal are, the Vistula, the Pregel, the Memel or Mam-
mel, the Passarge, and the Elbe.

* Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary and Bohemia, empress-dowager of Germany, was born in 1717. Her son, Joseph-Benedict-Augustus, was crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded his father as emperor of Germany in 1765, married the same year the princess Josephina-Maria, of Bavaria, who died in 1767. He had by his first wife (the princess of Parma) a daughter, Theresa-Elizabeth, born in 1762.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MAN- } As Prussia, since
NERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } the beginning of the
present century, has become a most respectable power upon
the continent of Europe, I shall, for the information of my
readers, deviate from my usual plan, that I may bring before
their eyes the whole of his Prussian majesty's territories, which
lie scattered in other divisions of Germany, Poland, Switzer-
land, and the northern kingdoms, with their names; all
which they will find in the following table.

| Protestants. | Countries Names | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. |
|--------------|-----------------|---------------|---------|----------|---|
| Poland. | Prussia, | 9,950 | 160 | 112 | KONINGS. } 54-53 N. Lat. } 21-35 E. Lon. |
| Up. Saxony. | Brandenburg, | 10,910 | 215 | 110 | Berlin, |
| | Pomerania, | 4,820 | 150 | 63 | Cammin, |
| | Swe. Pomerania, | 2,991 | 90 | 48 | Stetin, |
| Lo. Saxony. | Magdeburg, | 1,535 | 03 | 50 | Magdeburg, |
| | Halberstat, | 450 | 42 | 17 | Halberstat, |
| Silesia. | Crossen, | 550 | 33 | 28 | Crossen, |
| | Minden, | 595 | 42 | 26 | Minden, |
| Westphalia. | Ravensburg, | 525 | 58 | 34 | Ravensburg, |
| | Lingen, | 120 | 15 | 11 | Lingen, |
| | Cleves, | 630 | 43 | 21 | Cleves, |
| | Meurs, | 35 | 10 | 6 | Meurs, |
| Netherlands. | Mark, | 980 | 52 | 43 | Ham, |
| | Gelder, | 360 | 34 | 23 | Gelders, |
| Switzerland. | Neuchatel, | 320 | 32 | 20 | Neuchatel. |
| Total— | | 34,771 | | | |

I shall here confine myself to Prussia as a kingdom, because his Prussian majesty's other dominions fall under the description of the countries where they lie.

The inhabitants of this kingdom were, by Dr. Busching, computed to amount to 635,998 persons capable of bearing arms: and if so (for I greatly doubt their computation is exaggerated) it must then be more populous than is generally imagined. Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 colonists have removed thitherward from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number, 17,000 were Saltzburghers. These emigrants have built 400 small villages, 11 towns, 86 seats, and 50 new churches; and have founded 1000 village schools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from those of the other inhabitants of Germany. The same may be said of their customs and diversions.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS, } The religion of Prussia is, thro'
AND ACADEMIES. } his present majesty's wisdom, very
tolerant. The established religions are those of the Lutherans
and Calvinists, but chiefly the former; but papists, anabap-
tists, and almost all other sects, are here tolerated. The
country, as well as the towns, abounds in schools. An uni-
versity was founded at Koningberg in 1544, but we know of
no very remarkable learned men that it has produced.

CITIES.] The kingdom of Prussia is divided into the Ger-
man and Lithuanian departments; the former of which con-
tains 280 parishes, and the latter 105.

Koningberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, seated on
the river Pregel, over which it has seven bridges, and is about
84 miles from Dantzic. According to Dr. Busching, this
city is seven miles in circumference, and contains 3,800
houses, and about 60,000 inhabitants. This computation, I
doubt, is a little exaggerated likewise, because it supposes, at
an average, near sixteen persons in every house. Koningberg
has ever made a considerable figure in commerce and shipping;
its river being navigable for ships; of which 493 foreign ones
arrived here in the year 1752, besides 298 coasters; and that
373 floats of timber were, in the compass of that year, brought
down the Pregel. This city, besides its college or university,
which contains 38 professors, boasts of magnificent palaces, a
town-house, and exchange; not to mention gardens and other
embellishments. It has a good harbour and citadel, which is
called Fredericburg, and is a regular square.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, }
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } See Germany.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The present king of
Prussia, by the assistance of an excellent police, has brought
the commerce and manufactures of this country to a very
flourishing state, which is daily improving. The manufac-
tures of Prussia consist of glass, iron-work, paper, gunpowder,
copper and brass mills; manufactures of cloth, camblet, linen,
silk, stockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export
variety of naval stores, amber, linseed, and hemp-seed, oat-
meal, fish, mead, tallow, and caviar; and it is said that 500
ships are loaded every year with those commodities, chiefly
from Koningberg.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Prussian ma-
jesty is absolute through all his dominions, but is too wise to
oppress his subjects, though he avails himself to the full of his
power. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of
four chancellors of state, viz. 1. The great master; 2. The
great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The
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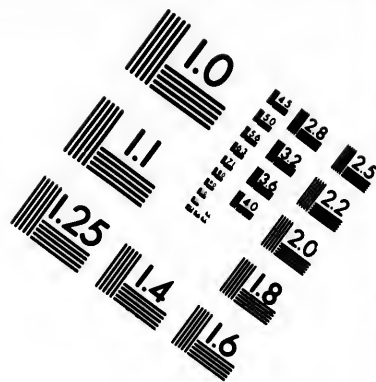
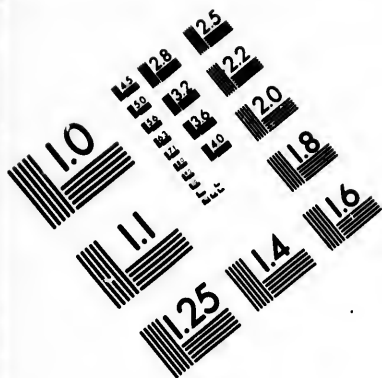
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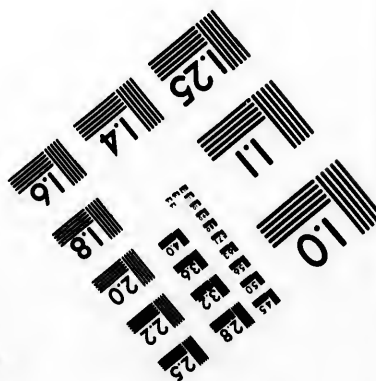
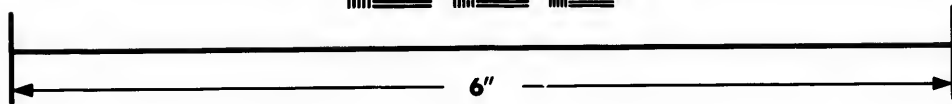
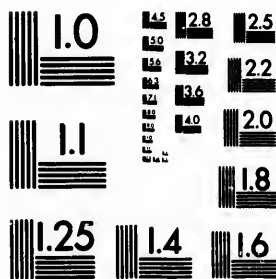
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great marshal. There are also some other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The states consist, 1. Of counsellors of state; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Besides these institutions, his majesty has erected a board for commerce and navigation.

REVENUES.] His Prussian majesty, by means of the happy situation of his country, its inland navigation, and his own excellent regulations, derives an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the seat of boors and barbarism. It is said, that amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues arise from his demesnes, his duties of customs and tolls, and the subsidies yearly granted by the several states; but the exact sum is not known, though we may conclude that it is very considerable, from the immense charges of the late war.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The regulations of this department, introduced by his majesty, have a wonderful quick operation in forming his troops and recruiting his armies. Every regiment has a particular district assigned it, where the young men proper for bearing arms are registered; and when occasion offers, they join their regiment, and being incorporated with veterans, they soon become well disciplined troops.

ARMS, AND ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The royal arms of Prussia are argent, an eagle displayed sable, crowned, or, for Prussia. Azure, the imperial sceptre, or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle displayed, gules, with semicircular wreaths, for the marquisate of Brandenburg. To these are added the respective arms of the several provinces subject to the Prussian crown.

There are two orders of knighthood; the first, that of the black eagle, instituted by Frederic I. on the day of his coronation at Koningsberg, with this motto, *SUUM CUIQUE*. The sovereign is always grand master, and the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, is limited to thirty.

Next to this is the order of Merit, instituted by his present majesty; the motto is *POUR LE MERITE*.

HISTORY.] The ancient history of Prussia, like that of other kingdoms, is lost in the clouds of fiction and romance. The inhabitants appear to have been a brave and warlike people, and refused to submit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to christianity, wanted to subject them to slavery. They made a noble stand against the kings of Poland, one of whom, Boleslaus IV. was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent and pagans till the time of the crusades, when the German knights

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knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1230, undertook their conversion by the edge of the sword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the property of the country, when conquered. A long series of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Prussia were almost extirpated by the religious knights, who in the thirteenth century, after committing the most incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. After this vast waste of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order, and Casimir, king of Poland, by which it was agreed, that the part now called Polish Prussia should continue a free province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand master should possess the other part; but were to acknowledge themselves vassals of Poland. This gave rise to fresh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unsuccessfully, to throw off their vassalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the last grand master of the Teutonic order, concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the east part of Prussia, (formerly called, for that reason, Ducal Prussia) but to be held as a fief of Poland, and to descend to his male heirs; and upon failure of his male issue, to his brothers and their male heirs. Thus ended the sovereignty of the Teutonic order in Prussia, after it had subsisted near 300 years. In 1657, the elector Frederic-William, of Brandenburg, deservedly called the Great, had Ducal Prussia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed, by Casimir, king of Poland, from vassalage; and he and his descendants were declared independent and sovereign lords of this part of Prussia.

As the protestant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that persuasion, the protestant interest favoured them so much, that Frederic, the son of Frederic-William the Great, was raised to the dignity of king of Prussia, in a solemn assembly of the states of the empire, and soon after acknowledged as such by all the powers of Christendom. His grandson, the present king of Prussia, in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this first king's talents for government, but expatiates on those of his own father, Frederic-William, who succeeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of strong natural parts, and performed prodigious services to his country, but too often at the expence of humanity, and the magnanimity which ought to adorn a king. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is said to have left seven millions sterling in his treasury, which has enabled

enabled his son, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful resources, by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the present age*.

THE KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Length 300 } between { 48 and 52 north latitude.
Breadth 250 } { 12 and 19 east longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg, on the north; by Poland and Hungary, on the east; by Austria and Bavaria, on the south; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, on the west; comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Silesia; and, 3. Moravia.

Divisions.

- | | | |
|---|---|--|
| | | Chief towns. |
| 1. Bohemia Proper, W. mostly subject to the Ho. of Austria. | } | Praguc, E. lon. 14-20. N. lat. 50. |
| | | Koningsgratz, E. |
| | } | Glatz, E. subject to the king of Prussia. |
| | | Egra, W. |
| 2. Silesia, east, mostly subject to the king of Prussia. | } | Breslau, E. lon. 17. N. lat. 51-15. |
| | | Glogaw, N. |
| | | Crossen, N. |
| | | Jagendorf, S. |
| | } | Tropaw, S. subject to the house of Austria. |
| | | Teschen, S. subject to the house of Austria. |
| 3. Moravia, S. entirely subject to the house of Austria. | } | Olmutz, E. lon. 16-45. N. lat. 49-40. |
| | | Brin, middle. |
| | | Igla, S. W. |

SOIL AND AIR.] The air of Bohemia is not thought so wholesome as that of the rest of Germany, though its soil and produce are pretty much the same.

MOUNTAINS.] Bohemia, though almost surrounded with mountains, contains none of note or distinction.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This kingdom contains rich mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, and saltpetre. Its chief manufactures are linen, copper, iron, and glass.

* Frederic III. king of Prussia, and elector of Brandenburg, was born in 1712, married in 1733 to Elizabeth-Christina, of Brunswic-Wolfenbuttle, born in 1714, by whom he has no issue. The issue of the late William-Augustus, next brother to the king, are, Frederic-William, prince royal of Prussia, born in 1744, and married in 1765 to the princess Elizabeth-Ulrica, of Brunswic. 2. Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born in 1751, and married in 1767 to the prince of Orange.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } We have no
 CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS. } certain ac-

count of the present population of Bohemia; about 150 years ago, it was computed to contain 3,000,000 of inhabitants: they are thought at present not to be so numerous. The Bohemians, in their persons, habits, and manners, resemble the Germans. There is, among them, no middle state of people; for every lord is a sovereign, and every tenant a slave. The lower ranks are accused of being addicted to pilfering and superstition. But though the Bohemians, at present, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly distinguished themselves as the most intrepid asserters of civil and religious liberty in Europe; witness the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country, when it was scarcely known in any other, the many glorious defeats they gave to the Austrian power, and their generous struggles for independency. Their virtues may be considered as the causes of their decay; as no means were left unemployed by their despotic masters for breaking their spirit: though it is certain, their internal jealousies and dissensions greatly contributed to their subjection. Their customs and diversions are the same as in Germany.

RELIGION.] Though popery is the established religion of Bohemia, yet many of the Moravians have embraced a visionary unintelligible protestantism, if it deserves that name, which they propagate, by their zealous missionaries, through all parts of the globe; some of whom have lately made profelytes in Great-Britain: they have a meeting-house in London, and have obtained an act of parliament for a settlement in the plantations.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbishopric. The bishoprics are Koningsgratz, Breslau, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Slavonian, but they generally speak German and High Dutch.

UNIVERSITY.] The only university in Bohemia is that of Prague.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the finest and most magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is so large, that the grand Prussian army, in its last siege, never could completely invest it. For this reason it is able to make a vigorous defence in case of a regular siege. The inhabitants, however, are thought not to be proportioned to its capaciousness, being thought not to exceed 70,000 Christians, and

about

about 13,000 Jews. It contains 92 churches and chapels, and 40 cloisters. It is a place of little or no trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are said to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, some of which are fortified, but they are remarkable neither for strength nor manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia: it is well fortified, and has manufactures of woollen, iron, glass, paper, and gunpowder.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Germany.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian constitution still subsist; but the government, under the empress-queen, is despotic. Their states are composed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and representatives of towns. Their sovereigns, of late, have not been fond of provoking them by ill usage, and they have a general aversion towards the Austrians. This kingdom is frequently described as part of Germany, but with little reason, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it subject to any of its laws. What gives some colour to this mistake is, that the king of Bohemia is the first secular elector of the empire, and their kings have been elected emperors of Germany for many years.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Bohemia are whatever the sovereign is pleased to exact from the states of the kingdom, when they are annually assembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000 l. a year.

ARMS.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and passed in saltier, crowned languid, and armed, or.

HISTORY.] The Bohemian nobility used to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany sometimes imposed a king upon them, and at length usurped that throne themselves. In 1414 John Huss and Jerome of Prague, two of the first reformers, were burnt at the council of Constance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection.

This occasioned an insurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council chambers; and the famous Zisca assembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in several engagements, and drove the imperialists out of the kingdom. The divisions of the Hussites among themselves, enabled the emperors to keep possession of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the imperial yoke, by electing a protestant king in the person of the prince Palatine, son-in-law to

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James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and being stript of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for a subsistence; and the Bohemians, since that time, have remained subject to the house of Austria.

HUNGARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | | | |
|---------|--------|-----------|-----------------------------|
| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
| Length | 300 | } between | { 17 and 23 east longitude. |
| Breadth | 200 | | { 45 and 49 north latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] **T**HAT part of Hungary which belongs to the house of Austria (for it formerly included Transylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, Temeswar, and other countries) is bounded by Poland, on the north; by Transylvania and Walachia, east; by Sclavonia, south; and by Austria and Moravia, west.

The general division of Hungary, is into Upper, by some called Proper, and Lower Hungary; the former lying north, and the latter south of the Danube. Their chief towns being Presburg and Buda.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air, and consequently the climate, of the southern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, stagnated waters, and marshes; the northern parts being mountainous and barren, the air is sweet and wholesome. No country in the world can boast a richer soil, than that plain which extends 300 miles from Presburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, grass, esculent plants, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, hops, pulse, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, chesnuts, and wood: corn is in such plenty, that it sells for one sixth part of its price in England.

RIVERS.] These are the Danube, Drave, Teyffe, Merish, and the Temes.

WATER.] Hungary contains several lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains of considerable extent, and abounding with fish. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are esteemed the most sovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raised by the Turks when in possession

session of the country, particularly those of Buda, are suffered to go to decay.

MOUNTAINS.] The Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the chief in Hungary, though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their sides grow the richest grapes in the world.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary is remarkably well stocked with both. It abounds not only with gold and silver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quicksilver, crysolite, and terra sigillata. Before Hungary became the seat of destructive wars, between Turks and Christians, or fell under the power of the house of Austria, those mines were furnished with proper works and workmen, and produced vast revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and silver employed mint-houses, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and the continent of Europe; but all those mines are now greatly diminished in their value, their work being destroyed or demolished, some of them however still subsist, to the great emolument of the natives.

**VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL } Hungary is remarkable for
PRODUCTIONS. } a fine breed of horses, generally mouse coloured, and highly esteemed by military officers, so that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Presburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the same with those of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tockay, are preferable to those of any other country, at least in Europe.**

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS. } It was late before the northern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary, and some of the descendants of their legionary forces, are still to be distinguished in the inland parts, by their speaking Latin. Be that as it will, before the Turks got possession of Constantinople, we have reason to think, that Hungary was one of the most populous and powerful kingdoms in Europe; and if the house of Austria should give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become so again in about a century hence. Both Hungaries at present, exclusive of Transylvania, and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themselves. They pique themselves on being descended from those heroes, who formed the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. In their persons

persons they are well made. Their fur-caps, their close-bodied coats, girded by a sash, and their cloak or mantle, which is so contrived, as to buckle under one arm, so that the right hand may be always at liberty, gives them an air of military dignity. The men shave their beards, but preserve their whiskers on their upper lips. Their usual arms are a broad sword, and a kind of pole-ax, besides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handsomer than those of Austria, and their sable dress with sleeves strait to their arms, and their stays fastened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are well known to the French and English ladies. Both men and women, in what they call the mine towns, wear fur and even sheep-skin dresses. The inns upon the roads are most miserable hovels, and even those seldom to be met with. Their hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peasants, and their poultry, live in the same apartment with their owners. The gout, and the fever, owing to the unwholesomeness of the air, are the predominant diseases in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other strangers, settled in their country, the flatness of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diversions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their ancestors, even since the beginning of the present century, were so jealous of their liberties, that rather than be tyrannized over, by the house of Austria, they often submitted to that of Othman; but their fidelity to the present empress-queen, notwithstanding the provocations they received from her house, will be always remembered to their honour.

RELIGION.] The established religion of the Hungarians, is the Roman-catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are protestants or Greeks, and the present empress-queen, out of gratitude for their services, has restored them to the full exercise of their civil and religious liberties.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are Presburg, Gran and Colocza. The bishoprics Great Waradin, Agria, Vefprin, Raab, and five churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Sclavonians and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is said to approach near the Hebrew. The better and the middlemost rank speak German, and almost all of them Latin, either pure or barbarous.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the universities (if they can be properly so called) of Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Cascham, are professors of the several arts and sciences, who are commonly Jesuits; so that the Lutherans, and Calvinists, who are more

numerous than the Roman-catholics in Hungary, go to German and other universities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The artificial curiosities of this country, }
 NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } consist of its bridges, baths and mines. The bridge of Eslek built over the Danube, and Drave, is, properly speaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain distances. It was an important pass during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Pest; and about twenty Hungarian miles distance from Belgrade, is the remains of a bridge, erected by the Romans, adjudged to be the most magnificent of any in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to distinguish them from the like works in other countries.

One of the most remarkable natural curiosities of Hungary, is a cavern in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the south, is eighteen fathom high, and eight broad; its subterraneous passages consist entirely of solid rock, stretching away further south than has been yet discovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be 50 fathoms, and the breadth 26. Many other wonderful particulars are related of this cavern, which is an article in natural philosophy. Astonishing rocks are common in Hungary, and some of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER } These are great-
 EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } ly decayed from their antient magnificence, but many of the fortifications are still very strong, and kept in good order. Presburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia are kept. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its antient magnificence, but its strength and fortifications, and the same may be said of Pest, which lies on the opposite side of the Danube. Raab is likewise a strong city, as is Gran and Comorra. Tockay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Having already mentioned the natural produce of the country, all I can add is, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives, consist of metals, drugs and salt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians dislike the term of queen, and call their present sovereign King Teresa. Their government preserves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, a Hungary-office, which resembles our chancery, and which resides at Vienna; as the stadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the British privy-council, but has a municipal jurisdiction,

jurisdiction, does at Presburg. Every royal town has its senate; and the Gespan chaits resemble our justices of the peace. Besides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other subordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The empress-queen can bring to the field, at any time, 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but seldom draws out of it above 10,000; these are generally light-horse, and well known to modern times by the name of hussars. They are not near so large as the German horse; and therefore the hussars stand upon their short stirrups when they strike. Their expedition and alertness has been found so servicable in war, that the greatest powers in Europe have troops that go by the same name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the number of enemies they pretend to have killed: both horse and foot are an excellent militia, very good at a pursuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle.

COINS.] Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage, and there are still extant in the cabinets of the curious, a complete series of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been discovered in this country, than perhaps in any other in Europe.

ARMS.] The empress-queen, for armorial ensigns, bears quarterly, barwise argent, and gules of eight pieces.

HISTORY.] The Huns, after subduing this country, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. Hungary was formerly an assemblage of different states, and the first who assumed the title of king, was Stephen, about the year 1000, when he embraced christianity. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert ascended the throne, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Crontea, Dalmatia, Slavonia, and many other provinces; but many of those conquests were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the 15th century, Hunniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladislaus, bravely repulsed the Turks, who invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladislaus, the Hungarians in 1438, raised Matthias Corvinus, son to Hunniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting against Solyman, emperor of the Turks. This battle had almost proved fatal to Hungary, but archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the sister of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he succeeded, with some difficulty, and that kingdom has ever since belonged to the house of Austria, though by its constitution its crown

ought to be elective. For the rest of the Hungarian history, see Germany.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, AND CROATIA.

I HAVE thrown those countries under one division, for several reasons, particularly because we have no precise, or authentic account of their extent and boundaries; and it is very difficult to fix what part of them belongs to the house of Austria, and what to the Turks, or other nations. The best account therefore I can give of them is as follows: Transylvania is generally reckoned to belong to Hungary, and is bounded on the north by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the east by Moldavia and Walachia; on the south by Walachia; and on the west by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between 22 and 25 degrees of east longitude, and 45 and 48 of north latitude. Its length is extended about 180, and its breadth 120 miles; but surrounded on all sides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables, and animals, are almost the same with those of Hungary. The air is wholesome and temperate; but their wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanstat, and its interior government still partakes greatly of the ancient feudal system, being composed of many independent states and princes. They owe but a nominal subjection to the Austrians, who leave them in possession of all their privileges. Papists, Lutherans, Calvinists, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other sectaries, here enjoy their several religions. Transylvania is thought to add but little to the Austrian revenue, though it exports some metals and salt to Hungary. Hermanstat is a large, strong, and well-built city, as is Claufenburg and Wissemburg. All sorts of provisions here are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. The seat of government is at Hermanstat, and the governor is assisted by a council made up of Roman-catholics, Calvinists, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by summons, and receives the commands of the sovereign, to whom of late they appear to have been entirely devoted. They have a liberty of making remonstrances and representations in case of grievances.

Transylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms, before they could be subdued. Their descendants retain the same military character. The population of the country is not ascertained, but if the Transylvanians can bring to the field, as has been asserted,

asserted, 30,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants must be considerable. At present its military force is reduced to six regiments of 1,500 men each; but it is well known that, during the last two wars, in which the house of Austria was engaged, the Transylvanians did great services. Hermanstadt is its only bishopric, and the Transylvanians at present seem to trouble themselves little, either about learning or religion, though the Roman-catholic is the established church. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania to the house of Austria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal aristocracy, which their sovereigns do not think proper to invade.

Sclavonia lies between the 16th and 22d degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is thought to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and is bounded by the Drave on the north, by the Danube on the east, by the Save on the south, and by Kiria in Austria on the west. The reason why Hungary, Transylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, subject to the house of Austria in those parts, contain a surprizing variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is because liberty here made its last stand against the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered into those quarters. The thickness of the woods, the rapidity of rivers, and the strength of the country favoured their resistance; and their descendants, notwithstanding the power of the Turks, the Austrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, still retain the same spirit of independency. Without minding the arrangements made by the sovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them most at liberty. That they are generous, as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the house of Austria, which till the last two wars, never was sensible of their value and valour; insomuch, that it is well known that they preserved the pragmatic sanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians formerly gave so much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought the word Slave took its original from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, so late as the reign of Charlemaigne. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Transylvania, yet the ravages of war are still visible in the face of the country, which lies in a great measure unimproved. The Sclavonians, from their ignorance, perhaps, are zealous Roman-catholics, tho' Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two

bishoprics, that of Rosoga, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no universities. The inhabitants are composed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vast number of other people, whose names were never known even to the Austrians themselves, but from the military muster-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the two last wars.

Croatia lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is 80 miles in length, and 70 in breadth. The manners, government, religion, language, and customs, of the Croats, are similar to those of the Slavonians and Transylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and as such are famed in modern history, under the name of Pandours, and various other designations. The truth is, the house of Austria finds its interest in suffering them, and the neighbouring nations, to live in their own manner. Their towns are blended with each other, there scarcely being any distinction of boundaries. Zagrab (which I have already mentioned) for instance, is thought to be the capital of Croatia. All the sovereignty exercised over them by the Austrians, seems to consist in the military arrangements for bringing them occasionally into the field.

As to the other Austrian dominions, they are so intermixed with those of the Venetians, Turks, and other nations, that it is impossible to separate them, and they shall be mentioned occasionally.

POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---------|--------|-----------|--|
| Length | 700 | } between | { 16 and 34 east longitude. 46 and 57 north latitude. |
| Breadth | 680 | | |

BOUNDARIES.] IT is very difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain with any precision, the real extent of the Polish dominions, through the uncertain possession of its extremities by the Turks, Tartars, Cossacs, and other nations. It is bounded on the north by Livonia, Muscovy, and the Baltic; on the east by Muscovy, and Little Tartary; on the south by Turkey and Hungary; and on the west by Germany.

DIVISIONS.] In a work like this, the reader cannot expect to be entertained with a vast variety of names that form the divisions of this great country. They are not well known
even

even to the natives themselves, and a minute account of them can be of no use either to strangers or natives; but the chief obstacle to such an undertaking, arises from the different claims of the great powers of the north. The geographers, for instance, have placed the kingdom of Prussia in Poland, tho' it is well known that his Prussian majesty is now the sole sovereign of that part of it called Ducal Prussia, as has been already mentioned. In like manner Courland is comprehended under Poland, though her Russian majesty has the entire disposal of that duchy. The best general division therefore of Poland is as follows.

| Poland. | | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. |
|--------------|------------------------------|---------------|---------|----------|---------------|
| Papists. | Lithuania, | 64,800 | 333 | 310 | Wilna |
| | Podolia, | 29,000 | 360 | 120 | Caminieck |
| | Volhonia, | 25,000 | 305 | 150 | Lucko |
| | Red Russia, | 25,200 | 232 | 185 | Lemburg |
| | Great Poland, | 19,200 | 208 | 180 | Gnesna |
| | Little Poland, | 18,000 | 230 | 130 | Cracow |
| | Polesia, | 14,000 | 186 | 97 | Bresfici |
| | Masovia, | 8,400 | 152 | 90 | WARSAW |
| | Samogitia, | 8,000 | 155 | 98 | Rasem |
| | Prussia Royal, | 6,400 | 118 | 104 | Elbing |
| Protestants. | Polachia, | 4,000 | 133 | 42 | Bielh |
| | Courland, subject to Russia, | 4,414 | 174 | 80 | Mittaw. |
| Total— | | 226,414 | | | |

} E. lon. 21-5.
} N. lat. 52-15.

Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, in Prussia Royal, are free cities, under the protection of Poland.

NAME.] It is generally thought that Poland takes its name from Polu, or Pole, a Slavonian word signifying a country fit for hunting, for which none was formerly more proper, on account of its plains, woods, wild beasts, and game of every kind.

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland is such as may be expected from so extensive but level a climate. In the north parts it is cold but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which separate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlasting snow, which has been known to fall in the midst of summer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, and far from being so unsettled, either in winter or summer, as might be supposed from so northerly a situation.

SOIL, PRODUCE AND WATERS.] Poland is in general a level country, and the soil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vast quantities that are sent from thence down the Vistula, to Dantzic, and are bought up by the Dutch, and other nations. The pastures of Poland, especially in Podolia, are rich beyond expression; and it is said one can hardly see the cattle

cattle that graze in the meadows. Here are mines of silver, copper, iron, salt and coals; the interior parts of Poland contain forests, which furnish timber in so great quantities, that it is employed in house-building, instead of bricks, stone, and tiles. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and some grapes are produced in Poland, and are excellent when they meet with culture, but their wine seldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clays fit for pipes and earthen ware. The water of many springs is boiled into salt. The virtues of a spring, in the palatinate of Cracow, which encreases and decreases with the moon, are said to be wonderful for the preservation of life, and it is reported, that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100, and some of them to 150 years of age. This spring is inflammable, and by applying a torch to it, it flames like the subtlest spirit of wine. The flame however dances on the surface, without heating the water, and if neglected to be extinguished, which it may easily be, it communicates itself by subterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees, in a neighbouring wood, which it consumes; and about 35 years ago, the flames are said to have lasted for three years, before they could be entirely extinguished.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of Poland are, the Vistula or Weyfel, the Neister, Neiper or Borithenes, the Bog, and the Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland, is Gopto, in the palatinate of Byzesty and Birals, or the White Lake, and is said to dye those who wash in it of a swarthy complexion.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY LAND AND WATER. } The vegetable productions of Poland have been already mentioned under the article of SOIL, though some are peculiar to itself, particularly a kind of manna (if it can be called a vegetable) which in May and June the inhabitants sweep into sieves with the dew, and it serves for food dressed various ways.

The forests of Warsovia or Masovia, contain plenty of uri, or buffaloes, whose flesh the Poles powder, and esteem it an excellent dish. Horses, wolves, boars, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Polish forests; and there is a species of wild horses and asses, that the nobility of the Ukrain, as well as natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, resembling a hart, with spots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the best furs in the country; but the elk, which is common in Poland, as well as in some other northern countries, is a very extraordinary animal. The flesh of the Polish elk forms the most delicious part of their greatest feasts. His

body

body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high, the feet broad and cloven, the horns large, rough, and broad, like a wild goat's. Naturalists have observed, that upon dissecting an elk, there was found in its head some large flies, with its brains almost eaten away: and it is an observation, sufficiently attested, that in the large woods and wildernesses of the north, this poor animal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a larger sort of flies, that, through its ears, attempt to take up their winter quarters in its head. This persecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling-sickness, by which means it is taken, which would otherwise prove no easy matter.

Poland produces a creature called bohac: it resembles a guinea-pig, but they seem to be the beaver kid. They are noted for digging holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occasionally for food, till April: they have separate apartments for their provisions, lodgings, and their dead; they live together by 10 or 12 in a herd. We do not perceive that Poland contains any species of birds peculiar to itself; only we are told that the quails there have green legs, and that their flesh is reckoned to be unwholesome. Poland contains no particular species of fish that we know of.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } From what has been said
MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND } of the extent of Poland,
DIVERSIONS. } it is impossible to form an estimate of the numbers of its inhabitants: they undoubtedly, before the breaking out of the present war, were very numerous; but they are so little known, even at present, that numbers of them, in remoter parts, continue still to be heathens, or have very imperfect notions of Christianity. Some have supposed Poland and Lithuania to contain 15,000,000 of inhabitants, and to be at least as populous as France. When we consider that the Poles have no colonies, and sometimes enjoy long tracts of peace, and that no fewer than 2,000,000 of Jews are said to inhabit their villages, exclusive of those who live in their cities and towns, perhaps this calculation is not exaggerated. The Poles, in their persons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their shapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honest, and hospitable; and their women sprightly, yet modest, and submissive to their husbands.

The diversions of the Poles are warlike and manly; vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horse, hunting, skating, bull and bear-baiting. They usually travel on horseback: a Polish gentleman will not travel a stone's-throw without his horse;

horse; and they are so hardy, that they will sleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in frost and snow. The Poles never live above stairs, and their apartments are not united; the kitchen is on one side, the stable on another, the dwelling-house on the third, and the gate on the front. They content themselves with a few small beds, and if any lodge at their houses, they must carry their bedding with them. When they sit down to dinner or supper, they have their trumpets and other music playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all serving with the most profound respect; for the nobles who are poor frequently find themselves under the necessity of serving them that are rich; but their patron usually treats them with civility, and permits the eldest to eat with him at his table, with his cap off; and every one of them has his peasant boy to wait on him, maintained by the master of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor spoons, but every guest brings them with him; and they no sooner sit down to table, than all the doors are shut, and not opened till the company return home. It is usual for a nobleman to give his servant part of his meat, which he eats as he stands behind him, and to let him drink out of the same cup with himself: but this is the less extraordinary, if it be considered, that these servants are esteemed his equal. Bumpers are much in fashion, both here and in Russia; nor will they easily excuse any person from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to describe the grandeur and equipages of the Polish nobility, and the reader may figure to himself an idea of all that is fastidious, ceremonious, expensive, and showy in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance, when they appear abroad, even to ridicule, for it is not unusual to see the lady of a Polish grandee, besides a coach and six, with a great number of servants, attended by an old gentleman-usher, an old gentlewoman for her governante, and a dwarf of each sex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her coach is surrounded by a great number of flambeaux. The figure of all their pomp, however, is proportioned to their estates, but each person goes as far as his income can afford.

The Poles are divided into nobles, citizens, and peasants. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that arises from the public posts they enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another brothers. They do not value titles of honour, but think a gentleman of Poland is the highest appellation they can enjoy. They enjoy many

many considerable privileges, and indeed the boasted Polish liberty is properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient custom and prescription. They have a power of life and death over their tenants and vassals; pay no taxes; are subject to none but the king; may chuse whom they will for their king, and lay him under what restraints they please by the *paſſa conventa*; and none but they, and the burghers of some particular towns, can purchase lands. In short, they are almost entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well regulated state; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility. These great privileges make the Polish gentry powerful; many of them have large territories, with a despotic power, as we have said, over their tenants, whom they call their subjects, and transfer or assign over with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Some of them have estates of from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are also hereditary sovereigns of cities, with which the king has no concern. One of their nobles possesses above 4000 towns and villages. Some of them can raise 8 or 10,000 men. The house of a nobleman is a secure asylum for persons who have committed any crime; for none must presume to take them from thence by force. They have their horse and foot guards, which are upon duty day and night before their palaces and in their anti-chambers, and march before them when they go abroad. They make an extraordinary figure when they come to the diet, some of them having 5000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the senate are often determined by the sword. When great men have suits at law, the diet, or rather tribunals, decide them; yet the execution of the sentence must be left to the longest sword; for the justice of the kingdom is commonly too weak for the grantees. Sometimes they raise 5 or 6000 men of a side, plunder and burn one another's cities, and besiege castles and forts; for they think it below them to submit to the sentence of judges, without a field battle. As to the peasants, they are born slaves, and have no notion of liberty. If one lord kills the peasant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peasant equal in value. A nobleman who is desirous of cultivating a piece of land, builds a little wooden house, in which he settles a peasant and his family, giving him a cow, two horses, a certain number of geese, hens, &c. and as much corn as is sufficient to maintain him the first year, and to improve for his own future subsistence and the advantage of his lord.

The

The peasants having no property, all their acquisitions serve only to enrich their master. They are indispensibly obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permission of their lords; and they are exposed to the dismal, and frequently fatal effects, of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical masters, who oppress them with impunity; and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuse it in the most gross and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being exposed to the most brutal treatment. One blessing, however, attends the wretched situation of the Polish peasants, which is their insensibility. Born slaves, and accustomed from their infancy to hardships and severe labour, they scarce entertain an idea of better circumstances and more liberty. They regard their masters as a superior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at their severe lot. Cheerful and contented with their condition, they are ready upon every occasion to sacrifice themselves and their families for their master, especially if the latter takes care to feed them well. They think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. I have been the more circumstantial in describing the manners and present state of the Poles, as they bear a near resemblance, in many particulars, to those of our own country and Europe in general during the feudal ages.

DRESS.] The dress of the Poles is pretty singular. They cut the hair of their heads short, and shave their beards, leaving only large whiskers. They wear a vest which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur and girded with a sash, but the sleeves fit as close to their arms as a waistcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their stockings. They wear a fur cap; their shirts are without collar or wristbands, and they wear neither stock nor neckcloth. Instead of shoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin soles, and deep iron heels bent like an half moon. They carry a pole-ax, and a sabre or cutlass, by their sides. When they appear on horse-back, they wear over all a short cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the best quality wear fables, and others the skins of tygers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty suits of clothes, all as rich as possible, and which descend from father to son.

Were it not for our own partiality to short dresses, we must acknowledge that of the Poles to be picturesque and majestic. Charles II. of England, thought of introducing the Polish dress into his court, and, after his restoration, wore it for

two years, chiefly for the encouragement of English broad-cloth, but discontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women comes very near to that of the men; but some people of fashion, of both sexes, affect the French or English modes. As to the peasants, in winter they wear a sheep's-skin with the wool inwards, and in summer a thick coarse cloth; but as to linen, they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the soles of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and make them wear little bells before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

The inns of this country are long stables built with boards and covered with straw, without furniture or windows; there is a chamber at one end, but none can lodge there, because of flies and other vermin; so that strangers generally chuse rather to lodge among the horses. Travellers are obliged to carry provisions with them; and when foreigners want a supply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with necessaries.

RELIGION.] No country has bred more deists and free-thinkers in religious matters than Poland: the number of protestants, consisting of Lutherans and Calvinists, in their republic is very considerable, and when these are joined to the Greek church, the whole are called Dissidents. At the same time, the Polish nobility, and the bulk of the nation, are tenacious of the Roman-catholic religion, even to enthusiasm, witness the present oppressive war carried on in Poland. The treaty of Oliva, which was concluded in 1660, and tolerated the dissidents, was guaranteed by the principal powers in Europe, but has since been so far disregarded by the Poles, that about the year 1724, they made a public massacre, under the sanction of law, of the protestants at Thorn, for which no satisfaction has been as yet obtained. The same may be said of the other numerous provisions made for the protection of the protestants, who were persecuted, when Jews, Turks, and infidels of every kind, have been tolerated and encouraged. The monasteries in Poland are by some writers said to be 576, and the nunneries 117, besides 246 seminaries or colleges, and 31 abbeys. The clergy are even possessed of two-thirds of the lands and revenues of the kingdom. The Polish clergy, in general, are illiterate bigots, and the monks are the most profligate of mankind. They are often seen drunk, and led from taverns, without apprehending any disgrace to their order, or dreading the censure of their superiors, who require equal indulgence.

After

112 POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

After what has been said, the reader cannot be at a loss to account for the vast sway which the clergy at this time appear to have in Poland, in spite of treaties and capitulations. Their disaffection to their king is, however, not to be imputed entirely to religion, but to the march of the Russians into the heart of the republic.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Poland contains two archbishoprics; Guesna, and Lemberg. The archbishop of Guesna, besides being primate, and during an interreign, prince-regent of the kingdom, is always a cardinal. The other bishops, particularly Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

LANGUAGE.] The Polish language is a dialect of Sclavonic, and is both harsh and unharmonious, on account of the vast number of consonants it employs, some of their words having no vowels at all. The Lithuanians and Livonians have a language full of corrupted Latin words; but the Russian and German tongues are understood in the provinces bordering on those countries.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though Copernicus, the great restorer of the true astronomical system, Vorstius, and some other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet its soil is far from being favourable to learning. Latin is spoken, tho' incorrectly, by the common people in some provinces. But the contempt which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever shown for learning, the servitude of the lower people, and the universal superstition among all ranks of men, these circumstances have wonderfully retarded, and notwithstanding the liberal efforts of his present majesty, still continue to retard the progress of letters in this kingdom.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Poland are those of Cracow, Posna or Posen, and Wilna. The first consists of eleven colleges, and has the superintendency of 14 grammar-schools dispersed through the city. That of Posna is rather a jesuit's college than an university. We know nothing particular of Wilna; and all of them, by this time, are probably ruined.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The frequent incur-
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } sions of the Tartars,
and other barbarous nations, into Poland, probably forced the women sometimes to leave their children exposed in the woods, where we must suppose they were nursed by bears and other wild beasts, otherwise it is difficult to account for their subsistence. It is certain that such beings have been found in the woods both of Poland and Germany, divested of all the properties

erties of humanity but the form. When taken, they generally went on all fours; but it is said, that some of them have, by proper management, attained to the use of speech; but this perhaps may be questioned.

The salt-mines of Poland consist of wonderful caverns several hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Out of these are dug four different kinds of salts; one extremely hard, like chrystal; another softer, but clearer; a third white, but brittle: these are all brackish; but the fourth, somewhat fresher. These four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow; on one side of them is a stream of salt-water, and on the other one of fresh. The revenue arising from those, and other salt-mines, is very considerable, and form part of the royal revenue; some having computed them at 40,000 l. sterling a year. Out of some mines at Itza, about 70 miles north-east of Cracow, are dug several kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potters use, and supply all Poland with earthen-ware. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the deserts of Podolia, are several grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preserved, though buried a vast many years since, being neither so hard nor so black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits they used to wear. It is thought that this preserving quality is owing to the nature of the soil, which is dry and sandy. Poland can boast of few antiquities, as old Sarmatia was never perfectly known to the Romans themselves. Its artificial rarities are but few, the chief being the gold, silver, and enamelled vessels, presented by the kings and prelates of Poland, and preserved in the cathedral of Guesna.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND } Warsaw lies on the Vi-
OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC } stula, and almost in the
AND PRIVATE. } centre of Poland. It is

the royal residence; but though it contains many magnificent palaces and other buildings, besides churches and convents, it has little or no commerce. The same may be said of Cracow, which is the capital, (though that honour is disputed by Warsaw) for we are told, that notwithstanding it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich salt mines, and is said to contain fifty churches and convents, its commerce is inconsiderable.

Dantzic is the capital of Polish Prussia, and is famous in history on many accounts, particularly that of its being formerly at the head of the Hanseatic association, commonly called the Hanse-towns. It is situated on the Vistula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous

city; its houses generally are five stories high; and many of its streets are planted with chefnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is still a most eminent commercial city, although it seems to be somewhat past its meridian glory, which was probably about the time that the president de Thou wrote his much esteemed *Historia sui Temporis*; wherein, under the year 1607, he so highly celebrates its commerce and grandeur. It is a republic, with a small adjacent territory about forty miles round it, under the protection of the king and the republic of Poland. Its magistracy, and the majority of its inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Romanists and Calvinists be equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has 26 parishes, with many convents and hospitals. The elder inhabitants make her number amount to 200,000; but later computations fall very considerably short of it; as appears by its annual bill of mortality, exhibited by Dr. Busching, who tells us, that in the year 1752, there died there but 1846 persons. Its own shipping is numerous, but the foreign ships constantly resorting to it are more so, whereof 1014 arrived there in the year 1752; in which year also 1288 Polish vessels came down the Vistula, chiefly laden with corn, for its matchless granaries; from whence that grain is distributed to many foreign nations; Poland being justly deemed the greatest magazine of corn in all Europe, and Dantzic the greatest port for distributing it every where: besides which, Dantzic exports great quantities of naval stores, and vast variety of other articles. Dr. Busching affirms, that it appears from ancient records, as early as the year 997, that Dantzic was a large commercial city, and not a village or inconsiderable town, as some pretend.

The inhabitants of Dantzic have often changed their masters, and have sometimes been under the protection of the English and Dutch, but of late they have shewed a great predilection for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being less likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them of their immunities, which reach even to the privilege of coining money. Though strongly fortified, and possessed of 150 large brass cannon, it could not, through its situation, stand a regular siege, being surrounded with eminences; and in 1734, the inhabitants discovered a remarkable attachment and fidelity towards Stanislaus, king of Poland, not only when his enemies, the Russians, were at their gates, but even in possession of the city.

The reason why Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, enjoy privileges, both civil and religious, very different from those of the rest of Poland is, because not being able to endure the
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tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themselves under the protection of Poland; but reserving to themselves large and ample privileges, which they still enjoy.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Some linen and woollen cloths, and hard wares, are manufactured in the interior parts of Poland; but commerce is entirely confined to the city of Dantzic, and their other towns on the Vistula and the Baltic.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been written upon this subject, but it remains in a great measure still unknown. The king is the head of the republic, and is elected by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warsaw. They elect him on horseback; and in case there should be a refractory minority, the majority has no controul over them, but to cut them in pieces with their sabres. Immediately after his election, he signs the *paëla conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engages to introduce no foreigners into the army or government; so that in fact he is no more than president of the senate, which is composed of the primate, the archbishop of Lemburg, fifteen bishops, and 130 laymen, consisting of the great officers of state, the palatines, and castellans.

The diets of Poland are ordinary and extraordinary: the former meet once in two, and sometimes three years; the latter is summoned by the king, upon critical emergencies; but one dissenting voice renders all their deliberations ineffectual.

The starosts properly are governors and judges in particular starosties or districts, though some enjoy this title without any jurisdiction at all. The palatines and castellans, besides being senators, are lord-lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants in their respective palatinates.

Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which can sit but six weeks, there are dietines, or provincial diets, held in different districts. The king sends them letters containing the heads of the business that is to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate may sit in the dietine, and chuse nuncios or deputies, to carry their resolutions to the grand diet. The great diet consists of the king, senators, and those deputies from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland and Lithuania, and seventy for Prussia; and it meets twice at Warsaw and once at Grodno, by turns, for the conveniency of the Lithuanians, who made it one of the articles of their union with Poland.

The king may nominate the great officers of state, but they are accountable only to the senate; neither can he displace

them when once appointed. When he is absent from Poland, his place is supplied by the archbishop of Guesna, and if that see is vacant, by the bishop of Plosko.

The ten great officers of state in Poland, who are senators, are, the two great marshals, one of Poland, the other of Lithuania; the chancellor of the kingdom, and the chancellor of the duchy; the vice-chancellor of the kingdom, and the vice-chancellor of the duchy; the treasurer of the kingdom, and the treasurer of the duchy; the sub-marshal, or marshal of the court of the kingdom; and the sub-marshal, or marshal of the court of the duchy.

Such are the outlines of this motley constitution, which is new modelled with almost every new king, according to the *pacta conventa* which he is obliged to sign; so that nothing of it can be said with certainty, and less at this time than ever; there being now a total dissolution of all order in Poland. It must, however, be acknowledged, that in the imperfect sketch I have exhibited, we can discern the great outlines of a noble and free government. The precautions taken to limit the king's power, and yet invest him with an ample prerogative, are worthy of a wise people. The institutions of the diet and dietines are favourable to public liberty, as are many other provisions in the republic. It laboured, however, even in its best state, under incurable disorders. The exercise of the *vetis*, or the tribunitial negative, that is vested in every member of a diet or dietine, must always be destructive of order and government. It is founded, however, upon Gothic principles, and that unlimited jurisdiction which the great lords, in former ages, used to enjoy all over Europe. The want of subordination in the executive parts of the constitution, and the rendering noblemen independent and unaccountable for their conduct, is a blemish which perhaps may be impracticable to remove, as it can be done only by their own consent. After all, when we examine the best accounts of the present constitution of Poland, and compare them with the antient history of Great Britain, and other European kingdoms, we may perceive a wonderful similarity between what these were formerly, and what Poland is at present. This naturally leads us to infer, that the government of Poland cannot be otherwise improved than by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which would render the common people independent on the nobility, and prevent the latter from having it in their power to annoy their sovereign, and to maintain those unequal privileges which are so hurtful to the community. If a nobleman of great abilities, and who happened to possess an extensive territory within the kingdom, should

should be elected sovereign, he might perhaps, by a proper use of the prerogatives of disposing of all places of trust and profit, and of ennobling the plebeians, which are already vested in the crown, establish the succession in his own family, and deliver the Poles from those perpetual convulsions which must ever attend an elective kingdom.

REVENUES.] Though the king of Poland is stinted in the political exercise of his prerogative, yet his revenue is sufficient to maintain him and his household with great splendor, as he pays no troops, or officers of state, nor even his body guards. The present king had 1,000,000 and half of florins settled upon him by the commission of state; and the income of his predecessors generally amounted to 140,000 l. sterling. The public revenues arise chiefly from the crown-lands, the salt-mines in the palatinate of Cracow, antient tolls and customs, particularly those of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburg, Dirshau, and Rogenhus, and of the government of Cracow and district of Niepoliomicz.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The innate pride of the Polish nobility is such, that they always appear in the field on horseback; and it is said that Poland can raise 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000 cavalry, and that with ease; but it must be understood that servants are included. As to their infantry, they are generally hired from Germany, but are soon dismissed, because they must be maintained by extraordinary taxes, of which the Polish grandees are by no means fond. As to the ordinary army of the Poles, it consists of 36,000 men, in Poland, and 12,000 in Lithuania, cantoned into crown-lands. The *pospolite* consists of all the nobility of the kingdom and their followers, excepting the chancellor, and the starosts of frontier places; and they may be called by the king into the field upon extraordinary occasions, but he cannot keep them above six weeks in arms, neither are they obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom.

The Polish hussars are the finest and most shewy body of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the *pancerns*; and both those bodies wear defensive armour of coats of mail and iron caps. The rest of their cavalry are armed with muskets and heavy scimiters. After all that has been said, the Polish cavalry are extremely inefficient in the field, for though the men are brave, and their horses excellent, they are strangers to all discipline; and when drawn out, notwithstanding all the authority their crown-general, their other officers, and even the king himself, have over them, they are oppressive and destructive to the court. It is certain, notwithstanding; that the Poles may be rendered excellent troops by discipline, and that

on various occasions, particularly under John Sobieski, they made as great a figure in arms as any people in Europe, and proved the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. It did not suit the Saxon princes, who succeeded that hero, to encourage a martial spirit in the Poles, whom they perpetually overawed with their electoral troops; nor indeed to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military; the effects of which conduct has been since, and is now severely felt in that devoted country.

ORDERS.] The order of the White Eagle was instituted by Augustus II. in the year 1705. Its ensign is a cross of gold, enamelled with red, and appendant to a blue ribbon. The motto, *Pro fide, rege et lege.*

HISTORY.] Poland, of old, was divided into many small states or principalities, each almost independent of another, though they generally had some prince who was paramount over the rest. In the year 830, a peasant, one Piastus, was elected to the sovereign throne. He lived to the age of 120 years, and his reign was so long and auspicious, that every native Pole who has been since elected king is called a piast. From this period to the close of the 14th century, we have no certain records of the history of Poland. Jagellon, who at this time mounted the throne, was grand duke of Livonia, and a pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a Christian, but was at pains to bring over his subjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to those of Poland, which gave such influence to his posterity over the hearts of the Poles, that the crown was preserved in his family, until the male line extinguished in Sigismund Augustus, in 1552. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown of Poland. These were Henry, duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian, of Austria. The French interest prevailed; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when his brother died, and he returned privately into France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had espoused Maximilian's interest, endeavoured once more to revive his pretensions; but the majority of the Poles being desirous to chuse a prince who might reside among them, made choice of Stephen Batori, prince of Transylvania; who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with some opposition from the Austrian faction, took the wisest method to establish himself on the throne, by marrying Anne, the sister of Sigismund Augustus, and of the royal house of Jagellon. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by establishing a new militia, composed of the Cossacks, a rough
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and barbarous race of men, on whom he bestowed the Uckrain, or frontiers of his kingdom. Upon his death, in 1586, the Poles chose Sigismund, son of John, king of Sweden, by Catharine, sister of Sigismund II. for their king.

Sigismund was crowned king of Sweden after his father's death, but being expelled, as we have already seen in the history of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war ensued between them and the Poles, but terminated in favour of the latter. Sigismund being secured in the throne of Poland, aspired to that of Russia as well as Sweden, but after long wars, he was defeated in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unsuccessful wars with the Turks and the Swedes. At last a truce was concluded under the mediation of France and England; but the Poles were forced to agree that the Swedes should keep Elbing, Memel, Branusberg and Pillan, together with all they had taken in Livonia. In the year 1632, Sigismund died, and Uladisslaus his son succeeded. This prince was successful both against the Turks and the Russians, and obliged the Swedes to restore all the Polish dominions they had taken in Prussia. His reign, however, was unfortunate, by his being instigated, through the avarice of his great men, to encroach upon the privileges of the Cossacs in the Ukraine. As the war which followed, was carried on against the Cossacs upon ambitious and perfidious principles, the Cossacs, who are naturally a brave people, became desperate; and upon the succession of John II. brother to Uladisslaus, the Cossac general Schmielinski, defeated the Poles in two great battles, and at last forced them to a dishonourable peace. It appears, that during the course of this war, the Polish nobility behaved as the worst of Russians, and their conduct was highly condemned by John; but his nobility disapproved of the peace he had concluded with them. While the jealousy hereby occasioned continued, the Russians came to a rupture with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Cossacs, they, in the year 1654, took Smolensko. This was followed with the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed most horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year, Charles X. of Sweden, after over-running the Great and Little Poland, fell into Polish Prussia, all the towns of which received him excepting Dantzic. The resistance made by that city, gave the Poles time to reassemble, and their king, John Casimir, who had fled into Silesia, was joined by the Tartars, as well as Poles; so that the Swedes, who were dispersed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the same time, disowned the allegiance they had been forced to pay to Charles, who

returned to Sweden, with no more than a handful of his army. It was during this expedition, that the Dutch and English protected Dantzic, the elector of Brandenburg acquired the sovereignty of the ducal Prussia, which had submitted to Charles. Thus the latter lost Poland, of which he had made an almost complete conquest. The treaty of Oliva was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Prussia was restored to the Poles. They were, however, forced to quit all pretensions to Livonia, and to cede Smolensko, Kiow, and the duchy of Siveria, to the Russians.

During those transactions, the Polish nobility grew very uneasy with their king. Some of them were dissatisfied with the concessions he had made to the Cossacs, many of whom had thrown off the Polish yoke; others taxed him with want of capacity; and some, with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Casimir, who very possibly had no such intentions, and was fond of retirement and study, finding that cabals and factions increased every day, and that he himself might fall a sacrifice to the public discontent, abdicated his throne, and died abbot of St. Germain's in France, employing the remainder of his days in Latin poetical compositions, which are far from being despicable.

The most remote descendents of the antient kings ending in John Casimir, many foreign candidates presented themselves for the crown of Poland; but the Poles chose for their king, a private gentleman of little interest, and less capacity, one Michael Wiefnowiski, because he was a Piast. His reign was disgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of the Cossacs had put themselves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces of Podolia, and took Kaminieck, till then thought impregnable. The greatest part of Poland was then ravaged, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the sultan. Notwithstanding those disgraceful events, the credit of the Polish arms was in some measure maintained by John Sobieski, the crown general, a brave and an active commander, who had given the Turks several defeats. Michael dying in 1673, Sobieski was chosen king; and in 1676, he was so successful against the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had imposed upon Poland, but they kept possession of Kaminieck. In 1683, Sobieski, though he had not been well treated by the house of Austria, was so public spirited, as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Christendom against the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raise the siege of Vienna, and making a terrible slaughter of
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the enemy; for all which glorious services, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopold.

Sobieski returning to Poland, continued the war against the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the senate, who suspected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

Poland fell into great distractions upon Sobieski's death. Many confederacies were formed, but all parties seemed inclined to exclude the Sobieski family. In the mean while, Poland was insulted by the Tartars, and her crown was in a manner put up to sale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, was the most liberal bidder; but while he thought the election almost sure, he was disappointed by the intrigues of the queen dowager, in favour of her younger son prince Alexander Sobieski, for which she was driven from Warsaw to Dantzic. All of a sudden, Augustus, elector of Saxony, started up as a candidate, and after a sham election being proclaimed by the bishop of Cujavia, he took possession of Cracow, with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city, in 1697. The prince of Conti made several unsuccessful efforts to re-establish his interest, and pretended that he had been actually chosen, but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe seemed to acquiesce in the election of Augustus. The manner in which he was driven from the throne, by Charles XII. of Sweden, and afterwards restored by the czar, Peter the Great, has been already related. It was not till the year 1712, that Augustus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and disagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Stanislaus, and were perpetually forming conspiracies and plots against Augustus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. In 1725, his natural son prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was chosen duke of Courland; but Augustus was not able to maintain him in that dignity, against the power of Russia, and the jealousy of the Poles. Augustus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, after he had done all he could to insure the succession of Poland to his son Augustus II. (or, as he is called by some III.) This occasioned a war, in which the French king maintained the interest of his father-in-law Stanislaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne, by a considerable party, of which the prince primate was the head. But Augustus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Russians, compelled his rival to retreat into Dantzic, from whence he escaped with great difficulty.

ficulty into France. I have, in other parts of this work, mentioned the war between Augustus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Russia and Austria, and his present Prussian majesty. It is sufficient to say, that though Augustus was a mild, moderate prince, and did every thing to satisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts, and all he obtained from them was merely shelter, when his Prussian majesty drove him from his capital, and electorate. Augustus died at Dresden, in 1763, upon which count Stanislaus Poniatowski, rather on account of his personal merits, and the impatience of the Poles under the Saxon yoke, than any pre-eminence of birth or family, was unanimously chosen king of Poland, by the name of Stanislaus Augustus. As he was eminently favoured by the Russians, the capitulation which he signed at the time of his election, and other acts of his government, were thought too favourable for the protestants and the Greek dissidents, the latter of whom claim her imperial majesty of Russia, as their protector and patroness. Her having an army lying, at that time, in Holland, gave a handle for many confederacies being formed by the catholics against Poniatowski. At first they were crushed with prodigious slaughter, and to the desolation of the country, by the Russians, the king not daring to trust even the Poles of his own party, for protection. The heads of the confederacy, at last, most unnaturally put themselves under the protection of the grand signior, who readily embraced their cause, proclaimed war against Russia, and invaded Poland with a powerful army, and it is at this time a theatre of as much misery, blood, and devastation, as perhaps ever was known in history*.

S W I T Z E R L A N D.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---------|--------|-----------|----------------------------|
| Length | 260 | } between | } 6 and 11 east longitude. |
| Breadth | 100 | | |

BOUNDARIES.] **I**T is bounded by Alsace and Suabia in Germany, on the north; by the lake of Constance, Tirol, and Trent, on the east; by Italy, on the south; and by France, on the west.

* Stanislaus Augustus, (late count Poniatowski) was born in 1732, and crowned king of Poland in 1764. This prince, while a private nobleman, resided some time in London; and is a fellow of the Royal Society.

S W I T Z E R L A N D.

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DIVISIONS.] Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons, which stand in point of precedency as follows: 1. Zurich; 2. Berne; 3. Lucern; 4. Wic; 5. Switz; 6. Underwald; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Basil or Balle; 10. Friburg; 11. Solothurn; 12. Schaffhausen; 13. Appenzel.

The best account we have of the dimensions, and principal towns of each canton, is as follows.

| Countries Names. | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. | |
|---|---------------|---------|----------|---------------|---------------------------------------|
| Switzerland. | | | | | |
| Calvinists. { | Berne | 2,346 | 111 | 87 | Berne |
| | Zurich | 728 | 34 | 33 | Zurich |
| | Schaffhausen | 140 | 23 | 9 | Schaffhaufe |
| | Basil | 240 | 21 | 18 | BASIL { 47-40 N. Lat. 7-40 E. Lon. |
| Papists. { | Lucern | 460 | 33 | 35 | Lucern |
| | Underwald | 270 | 23 | 16 | Stantz |
| | Uri | 612 | 48 | 21 | Altorf |
| | Suisse | 250 | 27 | 13 | Suisse |
| | Friburg | 370 | 24 | 21 | Friburg |
| | Zug | 112 | 18 | 10 | Zug |
| Calvin. and Papists. { | Solothurn | 253 | 31 | 24 | Solothurn |
| | Appenzel | 270 | 23 | 21 | Apenzel |
| The subjects of the Switzers. Calvinists and Papists. { | Glaris | 257 | 24 | 18 | Glaris |
| | Baden | 216 | 26 | 12 | Baden |
| | Bremgarten | | | | |
| | Mellingen | 40 | 20 | 5 | Mellingen |
| | Rhintal | | | | |
| | Turgow | 119 | 18 | 11 | Frowanfield |
| | Lugano | 850 | 52 | 30 | Lugano |
| | Locarno | | | | |
| Mendris | | | | | |
| Magia | | | | | |
| Total— | 7,533 | | | | |

Allies of the Switzers; the county of the Grifons, St. Gaul Repub. St. Gaul abbey, Tockenbug, Valais, Neufchatel, Mulhausen, and Geneva, N. Lat. 46-20, E. Lon. 6.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS AND WATER.] This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps, the frosts are consequently bitter in winter, the hills being covered with snow, sometimes all the year long. In summer the inequality of the soil renders the same province very unequal in its seasons; on one side of those mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are sowing on another. The vallies, however, are warm and fruitful, when well cultivated, as they generally are. The country is subject to rains and tempests, for which reason public granaries are every where erected to supply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often descends from the mountains in large or small cataracts, which have a pleasing effect.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, the Aar, the Rufs, the Jun, the Rhone, the Thur and the Oglis. The lakes are thofe of Geneva, Conftance, Thun, Lucern, Zurich, Neufchatel and Biende.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, crystal, virgin fuphur, and fprings of mineral waters.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Sheep and cattle are the chief animal productions of this country; corn and wood, and fome wine, with pot-herbs of almoft every kind, are likewife found here. The produce, however, of all thofe articles, are no more than fufficient for the inhabitants, who are too far removed from water-carriage to be profited by the ftately timber that grows in their woods. They have vail plenty of game, fifh and fowl.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } According to the beft accounts, the cantons of Switzerland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, induftrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and attachment to the caufe they undertake. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. All the cantons are regimented in a manner, that contributes equally to the fafety and profit of the inhabitants, who fupply foreign powers with excellent foldiers. They are fo jealous of their liberties, that they difcourage foreigners from fettling among them. Their nobility and gentry difdain the profefion of trade and manufactures. It is laid, that in many places of Switzerland, the inhabitants, efpecially thofe towards France, begin to degenerate from the antient fimplicity of their manners and dreis. The cuftoms and diverfions are of the warlike and active kind, and the magiftrates of moft of the cantons, impofe fines upon plays, gaming, and even dancing, excepting at marriages.

RELIGION.] Though all the Swifs cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table prefixed, may perceive. Thofe differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which feem now to have fubfided. Zuing, commonly called Zuinglius, was the apofle of proteftantifm in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther, and Calvin, only in a few speculative points; fo that Calvinifm is laid to be the religion of the proteftant Swiffes.

LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the moft common is German. The Swiffes, who border upon France, fpeak a bafard French, as thofe near Italy do a corrupted Latin, or Italian.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Calvin, whose name is so well known in all protestant countries, instituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high esteem by the most learned of that country. The ingenious and eloquent Rousseau too, whose works the present age have received with so much approbation, is a citizen of Geneva. Rousseau has given a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a prose-writer only, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the *Devin de Village* in particular is much esteemed; but in this he has acted with his usual consistency, in first abusing the French music, and then composing an opera.

UNIVERSITIES.] The university of Basil contains a noble library, some valuable manuscripts, and an excellent collection of medals. The other universities are those of Bern, Lausanne and Zurich.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Every district of a
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } canton in this mountainous country, presents the traveller with a natural curiosity; sometimes in the shape of wild but beautiful prospects, interspersed with lofty buildings, wonderful hermitages, especially one two leagues from Friburg. This was formed by the hands of a single hermit, who laboured on it for 25 years, and was living in 1707. It is the greatest curiosity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour, 28 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, cieing, all cut out of the rock. The marcasites, false diamonds, and other stones, found in those mountains, are justly ranked among the natural curiosities of the country. The ruins of Cæsar's wall, which extended 18 miles in length, from mount Jura, to the banks of lake Lemman, are still discernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been discovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus. Switzerland boasts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of jesuits; and many cabinets of valuable manuscripts, antiques, and curiosities of all kinds.

CITIES.] Of these the most considerable is the city of Bern, standing on the river Aar. This city and canton, it is said, forms almost a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occasion, fit out 100,000 armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided in arsenals, bridges, and public edifices. Basil is accounted by some the capital of all Switzerland.

I shall here, to prevent a repetition, mention the city of Geneva, which is an associate of Switzerland, and is under the

the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itself is an independent state, and republic. The city is well built, and well fortified, contains 30,000 inhabitants, most of whom are Calvinists. It is situated upon the efflux of the Rhone, from the large fine lake of Geneva. It is celebrated for the learning of the professors of its university, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeness of its inhabitants. By its situation, it is a thoroughfare from Germany, France, and Italy. It contains a number of fine manufactures and artists; so that the protestants, especially such as are of a liberal turn, esteem it a most delightful place.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, stockings, handkerchiefs, and gloves, are common in Switzerland, and the inhabitants are now beginning to fabricate, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, silks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progress in those manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a prospect of being able soon to make some exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] These are very complicated heads, though belonging to the same body, being partly monarchical, partly aristocratical, and partly democratical. The bishop of Basil, and abbot of St. Gaul, are sovereigns. Every canton is absolute in its own jurisdiction, but those of Bern, Zurich, and Lucern, with other dependencies, are aristocratical; those of Uri, Schwitz, Unterwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. But even those aristocracies, and democracies, differ in their particular modes of government. Perhaps in fact the democratical and popular part, as well as the aristocratical, are governed by their several leaders among the nobility, gentry, or eminent citizens.

The confederacy, considered as a republic, comprehends three divisions. The first, are the Swisses, properly so called. The second, are the Grisons, or the states, confederated with the Swisses, for their common protection. The third, are those prefectures, which, though subject to the other two, by purchase or otherwise, preserve each its own particular magistrates. Every canton forms within itself a little republic; but when any controversy arises, that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which sits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every question is decided by the majority. The general diet consists of two deputies from each canton, besides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gaul, and the cities of St. Gaul and Bienne.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The variety of cantons that constitute the Swiss confederacy, renders it difficult to give a precise

precise account of their revenues. Those of the canton of Bern, are said to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and those of Zurich to 150,000, the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is saved, after defraying the necessary expences of government, is laid up as a common stock, and it has been said, that the Swisses are possessed of 500,000 l. sterling in the English funds, besides those in other banks.

The revenues arise; 1. from the profits of the demefne lands; 2. the tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. customs and duties on merchandize; 4. the revenues arising from the sale of salt, and some casual taxes.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The internal strength of the Swiss cantons consists of 13,400 men, raised according to the population and abilities of each. The œconomy and wisdom with which this force is raised and employed, are truly admirable, as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign states and princes are supplied, so as to benefit the state, without any prejudice to its population.

HISTORY.] The present Swisses and Grisons, as has been already mentioned, are the descendents of the antient Helvetii, subdued by Julius Cæsar. Their mountainous uninviting situation, formed a better security for their liberties, than their forts or armies, and the same is their case at present. They continued long under little better than a nominal subjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor Albert I. treated them with so much rigour, that they petitioned him against the cruelty of his governors. This served only to redouble the hardships of the people, and one of Albert's Austrian governors Griser, in the wantonness of tyranny, set up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much respect as to himself. One William Tell, being observed to pass frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent marksman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unless he cleft an apple upon his son's head, at a certain distance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Griser asking him the meaning of another arrow he saw stuck in his belt, he bluntly answered, that it was intended to his [Griser's] heart, if he had killed his son. Tell was condemned to prison upon this, but making his escape, he watched his opportunity, and shot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundations of the Helvetic liberty.

Notwithstanding the above story, which might be true in the whole or part, it seems to be certain that the revolt of the Swisses from the Austrian tyranny had been planned among some noble patriots for some time before. Their measures were

so just, and their courage so intrepid, that they soon found a union of several cantons, which daily encreased, and repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till by the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent state. With regard to the military character, and great actions of the Swisses, I must refer the reader to the histories of Europe.

S P A I N.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles: Degrees.
 Length near 700 } between { 10 W. and 3 east longitude.
 Breadth 500 } { 36 and 44 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES. **I**T is bounded on the west by Portugal and the Atlantic ocean; by the Mediterranean, on the east; by the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenean mountains, which separate it from France, on the north; and by the strait of the sea of Gibraltar, on the south.

It is now divided into fourteen districts, besides islands in the Mediterranean.

| | Countries Names. | Square miles. | Length | Breadth | Chief cities. |
|----------------------------|--------------------|---------------|--------|---------|--|
| Spain. | Castile, New | 27,840 | 220 | 180 | MADRID { N. Lat. 40--30 W. Lon. 4--15 |
| | Andalusia | 16,500 | 273 | 135 | Seville |
| | Castile, Old | 14,400 | 193 | 140 | Burgos |
| | Aragon | 13,818 | 190 | 105 | Saragoſa |
| | Eſtremadura | 12,600 | 180 | 123 | Badajos |
| | Galicia | 12,000 | 165 | 120 | Compoſtella |
| Papiſts. | Leon | 11,200 | 167 | 96 | Leon |
| | Catalonia | 9000 | 172 | 110 | Barcelona |
| | Granada | 8100 | 200 | 45 | Granada |
| | Valencia | 6800 | 180 | 75 | Valencia |
| | Biscay and Ipuſcoa | 4760 | 140 | 55 | Bilboa |
| | Aſturia | 4600 | 124 | 55 | Oviedo |
| | Murcia | 3600 | 87 | 65 | Murcia |
| | Upper Navarre | 3000 | 92 | 45 | Pampelona. |
| In the Medi- terranean. | Majorca I. | 1400 | 58 | 40 | Majorca |
| | Yvica I. | 625 | 37 | 25 | Yvica |
| | Total— | 150,263 | | | |

The town and fortrefs of Gibraltar, ſubject to Great Britain.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the name of Iberia, and Heſperia, as well as Hiſpania. It was, about
 the

the time of the Punic wars, divided into Citerior and Ulterior; the Citerior, or hither part, contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largest part, comprehending all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the changes that it afterwards underwent; but there is no country of whose ancient history, at least the interior part of it, we know less of than that of Spain.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] Excepting during the equinoxial rains, the air of Spain is dry and serene, but excessive hot in the southern provinces in June, July, and August. The vast mountains that run through Spain are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreshing breezes that come from them in the southernmost parts; those toward the north and north-east, are in the winter very cold, and in the night make a traveller shiver.

So few writers have treated of the interior parts of Spain, that the public knew little of them till within these fifty years. The soil of Spain, it is well known, was formerly fruitful in corn, but the natives now find a scarcity of it, by their disuse of tillage, through their indolence; the causes of which I shall explain afterwards. It produces, in many places almost spontaneously, the richest and most delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy, oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raisins, and figs. Her wines, especially her sack and sherry, are in high request among foreigners; and Dr. Busching says, that the inhabitants of Malaga, and the neighbouring country, export yearly wines and raisins to the amount of 268,759 l. sterling. Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromising, because uncultivated ground; but no country perhaps maintains such a number of inhabitants, who neither toil nor work for their food; such are the generous qualities of its soil. Even sugar-canes thrive in Spain; and it yields saffron, honey, and silk, in great abundance. A late writer, Ustariz, a Spaniard himself, computes the number of shepherds in Spain to the amount of 40,000; and has given us a most curious detail of their economy, their changes of pasture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars unknown till lately to the public. Those sheep-walks afford the finest of wool, and are a treasure in themselves. Some of the mountains in Spain are clothed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which renders the taste of their kids and sheep so exquisitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds so much with mulberry-trees, that the product of its silk amounts to 200,000 l. a year. Upon the

whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and less to industry.

The waters (especially those that are medicinal) of Spain, are little known, but many salutiferous springs are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordoua. All over Spain the waters are found to have such healing qualities, that they are outdone by those of no country in Europe; and the inclosing, and encouraging a resort to them, grow every day more and more in vogue, especially at Alhamar in Granada.

MOUNTAINS.] It is next to impossible to specify these, they are so numerous; the chief are the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over these mountains there are only five narrow passages to France. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic ocean, south of Cape Finisterre. No Englishman ought to be unacquainted with Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and in former times, one of the pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lying opposite to it in Africa.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] These are the Douro, formerly Durius, which falls into the Atlantic ocean below Oporto in Portugal; the Tajo, formerly celebrated by the name of the Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic ocean below Lisbon; the Guadiana falls into the same ocean near Cape Finisterre; as does the Guadalquivier, now Turio, at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean sea below Tortosa.

Several lakes in Spain, particularly that of Beneventa, abound with fishes, particularly excellent trout. The water of a lake near Antiquera is made into salt by the heat of the sun.

BAYS.] The chief bays are those of Biscay, Ferrol, Corruna (commonly called the Groyne) Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthagea, Alicant, Altea, Valentia, Roser, and Majorca in that island. The harbour of Port-Mahon, in the island of Minorca, belongs to England. The strait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety, and of the same kinds, as the other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agate, load-stones, jacinths, turquois-stones, quicksilver, copper, lead, sulphur, allum, calamine, chrystal, marbles of several kinds, with other stones; and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethyfts, are found here. The Spanish iron, next to that of Damascus, furnishes the best arms in the world; and in former times, brought in a
vast

vast revenue to the crown; the art of working it being here in great perfection. Even to this day, Spanish gun-barrels, and swords of Toledo, are highly valued. Amongst the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and silver mines; and silver was in such plenty, that Strabo, who was contemporary with Augustus Cæsar, informs us, that when the Carthaginians took possession of Spain, their domestic and agricultural utensils were of that metal. These mines have now disappeared, but whether by their being exhausted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them, we cannot say; though the latter cause seems to be the most probable.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS } The Spanish horses, especially
BY SEA AND LAND. } those of Andalusia, are thought to be the handsomest of any in Europe, and at the same time very fleet and serviceable. The king does all he can to monopolize the finest breeds for his own stables and service. Spain furnishes likewise mules and black cattle; and their wild bulls have so much ferocity, that their bull-fights were the most magnificent spectacle the court of Spain could exhibit, nor are they now disused. Wolves are the chief beasts of prey that pepper Spain, which is well stored with all the game and wild fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries I have already described. The Spanish seas afford excellent fish of all kinds, especially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } Spain, former-
CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } ly the most populous kingdom in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the great drains of people sent to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who are at no pains to raise food for their families. Another cause may be assigned, and that is, the vast numbers of ecclesiastics, of both sexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Other writers have given several other causes, such as their wars with the Moors and final expulsion of that people, but I apprehend that they are in a great measure removed by the regulations and checks upon the clergy that have been introduced by his present catholic majesty. Be that as it will, some late writers have computed the inhabitants of Spain at 7,000,000 and a half; others say that they do not exceed 5,000,000. This calculation, I think, is under-rated, when we reflect on the numerous armies which Spain has raised and recruited since the beginning of this century.

The persons of the Spaniards are generally tall, especially the Castilians; their hair and complexions swarthy, but their countenances are very expressive. The court of Madrid has

of late been at great pains to clear their upper lips of mustachoes, and to introduce among them the French dress, instead of their black cloaks, their short jerkin, frait breeches, and long Toledo swords, which dress is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the accession of the house of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dress in hatred and contempt of the French; and the government, probably, will find some difficulty in abolishing it quite, as the same spirit is far from being extinguished. An old Castilian, or Spaniard, who sees none above him, thinks himself the most important being in nature; and the same pride is commonly communicated to his descendents. This is the true reason why so many of them are so fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of seeing a superior.

Ridiculous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the most exalted qualities. It inspires the nation with generous, humane, and virtuous sentiments; it being seldom found that a Spanish nobleman, gentleman, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the most embittered wars they have had with England for near 70 years past, we know of no instance of their taking advantage (as they might easily have done) of confiscating the British property on board their galleons and Plate fleet, which was equally secure in time of war as peace. This is the more surprizing, as Philip V. was often needy, and his ministers were far from being scrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great-Britain.

By the best and most credible accounts of the late war, it appears that the Spaniards in South America gave the most humane and noble relief to all British subjects who were in distress and fell into their hands, not only by supplying them with necessaries, but money; and treating them in the most hospitable manner while they remained among them.

Having said thus much, we are carefully to distinguish between the Spanish nobility, gentry, and traders, and their government, who are to be put on the same footing with the lower ranks of Spaniards, who are as mean and rapacious as those of any other country. The kings of Spain of the house of Bourbon, have seldom ventured to employ native Spaniards of great families, as their ministers. These are generally French or Italians, but most commonly the latter, who rise into power by the most infamous arts, and of late times from the most abject stations. Hence it is that the French kings of Spain, since their accession to that monarchy, have been but very indifferently served in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greatest genius among them, embroiled his master with all
Europe,

Europe, till he was driven into exile and disgrace ; and Grimaldi, the last of their Italian ministers, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppressive and unpopular measures.

The common people who live on the coasts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an assemblage of Jews, French, Russians, Irish adventurers, and English smugglers ; who being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards. In time of war, they follow privateering with great success ; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Irish and Walloon guards in the Spanish service.

The beauty of the Spanish ladies reigns mostly in their novels and romances ; for though it must be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their persons, they are commonly small and slender ; but they are said to employ vast art in supplying the defects of nature. If we are to hazard a conjecture, we might reasonably suppose that those artifices rather diminish than encrease their beauty, especially when they are turned of 25. Their indiscriminate use of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, undoubtedly disfigures their complexions, and shrivels their skin. It is at the same time universally allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

After all I have said, it is more than probable that the vast pains taken by the government of Spain, may at last eradicate those customs and habits among the Spaniards that seem so ridiculous to foreigners. They are universally known to have refined notions and excellent sense ; and this, if improved by study and travelling, which they now stand in great need of, would render them superior to the French themselves. Their slow deliberate manner of proceeding, either in council or war, has of late years worn off to such a degree, that during the two last wars, they were found to be as quick both in resolving and executing, if not more so, than their enemies. Their secrecy, constancy, and patience, have always been deemed exemplary ; and in several of their provinces, particularly Galicia, Granada, and Andalusia, the common people have, for some time, assiduously applied themselves to agriculture and labour.

Among the many good qualities possessed by the Spaniards, their sobriety in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfast, as well as sup in bed ; their breakfast is usually chocolate, tea being very seldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, chives,

salad,

salad, and radishes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine; and the women use water or chocolate. Both sexes usually sleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evenings. Dancing is so much their favourite entertainment, that you may see a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the same country dance. Their theatrical exhibitions are generally insipid and ridiculous bombast. The prompter's head appears through a trap door above the level of the stage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling passion in Spain. Jealousy, since the accession of the house of Bourbon, has slept in peace. The nightly musical serenades of mistresses by their lovers are still in use. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-feasts, are almost peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On these occasions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of shewing their courage and activity before their mistresses; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceness of the bulls he has killed in these encounters. Great pains are used in settling the form and weapons of the combat, so as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diversion itself is undoubtedly of Moorish original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaisance, and partly through rivalry.

[RELIGION.] The horrors of the Romish religion, the only one tolerated in Spain, are now almost extinguished there, by moderating the penalties of the inquisition, a tribunal disgraceful to human nature; but though disused, it is not abrogated; only the ecclesiastics and their officers can carry no sentence into execution without the royal authority: It is still in force against the Moorish and Jewish pretended converts. The Spaniards, however, embrace and practise the Roman-catholic religion with all its absurdities; and in this they have been so steady, that their king is distinguished by the epithet of Most Catholic.

[ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] In Spain there are eight archbishoprics, and 46 bishoprics. The archbishop of Toledo is stiled the Primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Castile; has a revenue of 100,000 l. sterling per annum. The riches of the Spanish churches and convents are the unvarying objects of admiration to all travellers as well as natives; but there is a sameness in them all, excepting that they differ in the degrees of treasure and jewels they contain.

LANGUAGE.] The ground-work of the Spanish language, like that of the Italian, is Latin; and it might be called a bastard Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, especially the former. It is at present a most majestic and expressive language; and it is remarkable, that foreigners who understand it the best, prize it the most. It makes but a poor figure even in the best translators; and Cervantes speaks as awkward English, as Shakespear does French. It may, however, be considered as a standard tongue, having retained its purity for upwards of 200 years. Their Pater-noster runs thus; *Padro nuestro, que estas en los cielos, santificade sea tu nombre; venga tu regno; hugasé tu voluntad, assien la tierra como en el cielo; da nos hoy nuestro pan cotidiano; y perdona nos nuestras deudas assi como nos otros, perdonamos a nuestros deudores; y no nos metas en tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es le regno; y la potencia; y la gloria per los siglos.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect may, in some measure, be owing to their indolence and bigotry, which does not suffer them to apply to the study of the polite arts. Several old fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes a great deal to Isidore, bishop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewise produced some excellent physicians. Calderoni and Lopez de Vega, have by some been put in competition with our Shakespear in the drama, where it must be owned they shew great genius. Such was the gloom of the Austrian government, that took place with the emperor Charles V. that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of *Don Quixote*, listed in a station little superior to that of a common soldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto. His satire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of *Don Quixote*, did as much service to his country, by curing them of that ridiculous spirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous satirists.

Tostatus, a divine, the most voluminous perhaps that ever wrote, was a Spaniard; but his works have been long distinguished only by their bulk. Herrera, and some other historians, particularly De Solis, have shewn great abilities in history, by investigating the antiquities of America, and writing the history of its conquest by their countrymen. Spain has likewise produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amusing and instructive. If it should happen that the Spaniards could disengage themselves from

their abstracted metaphysical turn of thinking, they certainly would make a capital figure in literature.

Some of the Spaniards have distinguished themselves in the polite arts, particularly Murillo, in painting; and not only the cities, but the palaces, especially the Escorial, discover many striking specimens of their abilities as sculptors and architects; but neither their names nor works are much known in other parts of Europe.

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned 22 universities, some make them 24; as, Seville, Granada, Compostella, Toledo, Valladolid, Salamanca, Alcalá, Sigüenza, Valencia, Lerida, Huesca, Saragosa, Tortosa, Ossuna, Onata, Gandia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES } The former of these
ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. } consist chiefly of Roman and Moorish antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is supported by a double row of 170 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terragona, Toledo, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz, is vulgarly, but erroneously, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules.

The Moorish antiquities, especially the palace of Granada, are magnificent and rich: the inside is overlaid with jasper and porphyry, and the walls contain many Arabic inscriptions; the whole is executed in what we improperly call the Gothic taste, but it is really Saracen, though the Goths of Spain adopted it. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Moorish times, remain in Spain, some of them in tolerable preservation, and others exhibiting superb ruins.

Among the natural curiosities, the medicinal springs, and some noisy lakes, form a principal part, but we must not forget the river Guadiana, which, like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then is said to emerge.

CHIEF CITIES.] Madrid, though unfortified, it being only surrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. All its grandeur, which the Spaniards blazon with great pomp, does not prevent its being, according to the best accounts, a dirty uncomfortable place to live in, especially for strangers. It is surrounded with very lofty mountains, whose summits are always covered with snow. The houses in Madrid are of brick; and are laid out chiefly for shew, conveniency being little considered; thus you will pass through usually two or three large apartments of no use, in order to come at a small room at the end where the family sit. The houses in general look more like prisons, than the habitations

habitations of people at their liberty; the windows, beside having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range; and sometimes all the rest. Separate families generally inhabit the same house, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much distressed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking strangers into their houses, especially if they are not catholics. Its greatest excellency is the cheapness of its provisions, but neither tavern, coffee-house, nor news paper, excepting the Madrid gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The boasted royal palaces round it are designed for hunting seats, or houses of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good statues. The chief of those palaces, are the Buen Retiro, Cusa de Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonso.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Escorial, and the natives say, perhaps with justice, that the building of it cost more than that of any palace in Europe. The description of this palace forms a sizeable quarto volume, and it is said, that Philip II. who was its founder, expended upon it 3,300,060 l. sterling. The Spaniards say, that this building, besides its palace, contains a church, a mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, a college, and a library, besides large apartments for all kinds of artists and mechanics, noble walks, with extensive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and costly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of 12,000 l. The mausoleum, or burying-place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, because it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full estimate of the incredible sums bestowed on this palace, and on its furniture, statues, paintings, columns, vases, and the like decorations, which are most amazingly rich, and beautiful, yet we hazard nothing in saying, that the fabric itself discovers a bad taste, upon the whole. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, because St. Laurence, to whom it is dedicated, was broiled on such a utensil, and multiplying the same figure through its principal ornaments, could have been formed only in the brain of a tasteless bigot, such as Philip II. who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French (but by the assistance of the English forces) at St. Quintin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1563. It has been enriched and adorned by his successors, but its outside has a gloomy appearance, and the inside is composed of different structures, some of which are master-pieces of architecture, but forming a disagreeable

greccable whole. It must however be confessed, that the pictures and statues that have found admision here, are excellent in their kind, and some of them not to be equalled even in Italy itself.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spanish commerce. It stands on an island separated from the continent of Andalusia, without the straits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the sea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts called the Puntals. The entrance has never been of late years attempted by the English, in their wars with Spain, because of the vast interest our merchants have in the treasures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors.

Seville is, next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. Its manufacturers in wool and silk, which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400, and its great office of commerce to Spanish America, is removed to Cadiz.

Barcelona, a large trading city containing 15,000 houses, is situated on the Mediterranean facing Minorca, and is said to be the handsomest place in Spain.

Notwithstanding the pride and ostentation of the Spaniards, their penury is easily discernible, but their wants are few, and their appetites easily satisfied. The inferior orders even in the greatest cities are miserably lodged, and those lodgings wretchedly furnished. The poorer sorts, both men and women, wear neither shoes nor stockings. A traveller in Spain must carry provisions and bedding with him, and if perchance he meets with the appearance of an inn, he must even cook his victuals, it being beneath the dignity of a Spaniard, to perform these offices to strangers; but lately some tolerable inns have been opened by Irish and Frenchmen in the cities, and upon the highways. The pride, indolence, and laziness of the Spaniards, are powerful inducements to their more industrious neighbours the French, who are to be found in all parts of the kingdom; and here a wonderful contrast distinguishes the character of two neighbouring nations. The Spaniard seldom stirs from home, or puts his hand to work of any kind. He sleeps, goes to mass, takes his evening walk. While the industrious Frenchman becomes a thorough domestic; he is butcher, cook, and taylor, all in the same family; he powders the hair, cuts the corn, wipes the shoes, and after making himself useful in a thousand different shapes, he returns to his native country loaded with dollars, and laughs out the remainder of his days at the expence of his proud benefactor.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards, unhappily for themselves, make gold and silver the chief branches both of their exports and imports. They import it from America, from whence they export it to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium for this commerce. "Hither (says Mr. Anderson, in his History of Commerce) other European nations send their merchandize, to be shipped off in Spanish bottoms for America, sheltered (or, as our old English phrase has it, coloured) under the names of Spanish factors. Those foreign nations have here their agents and correspondents, and the consuls of those nations make a considerable figure. Cadiz has been said to have the finest storehouses and magazines for commerce of any city in Europe; and to it the flota and galleons regularly import the treasures of Spanish America. The proper Spanish merchandize exported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandize sent thither would yield a great revenue, (and consequently the profits of merchants and their agents would sink) were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding those duties."

The manufactures of Spain are chiefly of silk, wool, copper, and hard-ware. Great efforts have been made by the government to prevent other European nations from reaping the chief advantage of the American commerce; but these never can be successful, till a spirit of industry is awakened among the natives, so as to enable them to supply their American possessions with their own commodities and merchandize.

Mean while, the good faith and facility with which the English, French, Dutch, and other nations, carry on this contraband trade, render them greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themselves are, the clear profits seldom amounting to less than 20 per cent. This evidently makes it an important concern, that those immense riches should belong to the Spaniards rather than to any active European nation: but I shall have occasion to touch this subject in the account of America.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, from being the most free, is now the most despotic kingdom in Europe. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of succession. It has even been questioned, whether his catholic majesty may not bequeath his crown upon his demise, to any branch of the royal family he pleases. It is at least certain, that the house of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain, in virtue of the last will of Charles II.

The courts or parliaments of the kingdom, which formerly, especially in Castile, had greater power and privileges than that

that of England, are now abolished, but some faint remains of their constitution, are still discernible in the government, though all of them are ineffectual, and under the controul of the king.

The privy-council, which is composed of a number of noblemen or grandees, nominated by the king, sits only to prepare matters, and to digest papers for the cabinet-council or junta, which consists of the first secretary of state, and three or four more named by the king, and in them resides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cognizance of military affairs only. The council of Castile is the highest law tribunal of the kingdom. The several courts of the royal audiences, are those of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragossa, Valentia and Barcelona. These judge primarily in all causes within 15 miles of their respective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior jurisdictions. Besides these there are many subordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of business.

The government of Spanish America forms a system of itself, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magistrates, who are in their respective districts almost absolute. A council for the Indies is established in Old Spain, and consists of a governor, four secretaries, 22 councillors, besides officers. Their decision is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally chosen from the viceroys and magistrates, who have served in that country. The two great viceroyalties of Peru and Mexico are so considerable, that they are seldom trusted to one person for more than three years, but they are thought sufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign possessions of the crown of Spain, besides those in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Mafulquivir, on the coast of Barbary in Africa; and the islands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines and Ladrones, in Asia.

The chief islands belonging to Spain in Europe, are those of Majorca, and Yvica, of which we have nothing particular to say. Minorca is indeed a Spanish island, but it was taken by the English in 1708. The Spanish inhabitants enjoy their religion, and particular privileges, to which they are entitled by treaties, and they are said to amount to 27,000.

REVENUES.] The revenues arising to the king from Old Spain, yearly amount to 5,000,000 sterling, though some say eight; and they form the surest support of his government. His American income, it is true, is immense, but it is generally in a manner embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in

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Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the silver mines that are worked, but little of it comes into his coffers. He falls upon means, however, in case of a war, or any public emergency, to sequester into his own hands great part of the American treasures belonging to his subjects, who never complain, because they are always punctually repaid with interest. The finances of his present catholic majesty are in excellent order, and on a better footing, both for himself and his people, than those of any of his predecessors.

As to the taxes from whence the internal revenues arise, they are various, arbitrary, and so much suited to conveniency, that we cannot fix them at any certainty. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houses, lands, timber, and provisions; the clergy and military orders are likewise taxed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The land forces of the crown of Spain, in time of peace, are never fewer than 40,000; but in case of a war, they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 96,000. The great dependence of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign guards. His present catholic majesty has been at great care and expence to raise a powerful marine; and his fleet in Europe and America at present exceeds 50 ships of the line.

ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NO- } Spain formerly compre-
BILITY AND ORDERS. } hended twelve kingdoms,
all which, with several others, were by name entered into the royal titles, so that they amounted in all to about 32. This absurd custom is still occasionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of his Catholic majesty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a sword without being crowned. Their signature never mentions their name, but **I THE KING**. Their eldest son is called prince of Asturias, and their younger children of both sexes, are by way of distinction called infants or infantas, that is children.

The armorial bearing of the kings of Spain, like their title, is loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a shield, divided into four quarters, of which the uppermost on the right hand, and the lowest on the left contain a castle, or, with three towers, for Castile; and in the uppermost on the left, and the lowest on the right, are three lions gules for Leon; with three lillies in the center for Anjou.

The general name for those Spanish nobility and gentry, unmixed with the Moorish blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandes, may stand covered before the king, and are treated with princely distinctions.

distinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbishops, ambassadors, knights of the golden fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and state, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king. The knights of the three military orders of St. James, Calatrava, and Alcantara, are esteemed noblemen; they were instituted in the long wars between the Christians and the Moors, as an encouragement to valour; and have large estates annexed to their respective orders, consisting chiefly of towers or territories recovered from the Moors. The order of the golden fleece is generally conferred on princes and sovereign dukes; but there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

HISTORY.] See Portugal; the two kingdoms being formerly under one head*.

P O R T U G A L.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---------|--------|-----------|-----------------------------|
| Length | 300 | } between | { 37 and 42 north latitude. |
| Breadth | 100 | | |

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Spain on the north and east, and on the south and west by the Atlantic ocean, being the most westerly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

ANTIEN T NAMES AND DIVISIONS. } This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Lusitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It most probably is derived from some noted harbour or port, to which Gauls (for so strangers are called in the Celtic) resorted. By the form of the country it is naturally divided into three parts; the north, middle, and south provinces.

* Charles III. king of Spain, was born in 1716, succeeded to the throne in 1759; and has issue by his late queen,

1. Maria-Josepha, born 1744.
2. Maria-Louisa, born 1745, married 1765, to the archduke Leopold of Austria, great duke of Tuscany, and brother to the present emperor of Germany.
3. Philip-Anthony, duke of Calabria, born 1747, declared incapable of succeeding to the throne, on account of an invincible weakness of understanding.
4. Charles-Anthony, prince of Asturias, born in 1748, married 1765 to Louisa-Maria-Theresa, princess of Parma.
5. Ferdinand-Anthony, king of Naples, born in 1751, married 1768, to the archduchess Mary-Caroline-Louisa, sister to the emperor of Germany.
6. Gabriel-Anthony, born in 1752, grand prior of the kingdom of Spain.
7. Anthony-Pascal, born 1755.
8. Francis-Xavier, born 1757.

| | Provinces. | Chief towns. |
|------------------------------|--|---|
| The North Division contains | { Entre Minho Douro and Tralos Montes | { Braga Oporto and Viana Miranda and Villa Real. |
| The Middle Division contains | { Beira Estremadura | { Coimbra Guarda Castel Rodrigo LISBON { 38-42. N. lat. 8-53. W. lon. St. Ubes and Leira. |
| The South Division contains | { Entre Tajo Gadiana Alentejo Algarva | { Ebora, or Evara Portalegre, Elvas, Beia Lagos Faro, Tavira, and Silves. |

SOIL, AIR, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The soil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, especially in corn, which they import from other countries. Their fruits are the same as in Spain, but not so high flavoured. The Portuguese wines, when old and genuine, are esteemed to be friendly to the human constitution, and safe to drink. Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; variety of gems, marbles and millstones, and a fine mine of salt-petre, near Lisbon. Their cattle and poultry are but indifferent eating. The air, especially about Lisbon, is reckoned soft and beneficial to consumptive patients; it is not so searching as that of Spain, being refreshed from the sea breezes.

MOUNTAINS.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for their mountains are generally barren: the chief are those which divide Algarve from Alentejo; those of Tralos Montes, and the rock of Lisbon, at the mouth of the Tajo.

WATER AND RIVERS.] Though every brook in Portugal is reckoned a river, yet the chief Portuguese rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantic ocean. The Tagus, or Tajo, was celebrated for its golden sand. Portugal contains several roaring lakes and springs, some of them are absorbent even of the lightest substances, such as wood, cork, and feathers; some, particularly one about 45 miles from Lisbon, are medicinal and fanative; and some hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province of Algarve.

PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.] The promontories or capes of Portugal, are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; Cape Roca, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; Cape Espithel, at the south entrance of the river Tajo; and Cape St. Vincent, on the south-west point of Algarve. The bays are those of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, south of Lisbon, and Lagos Bay in Algarve.

ANIMALS.] The sea-fish, on the coast of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable eating. Their mules are sure and serviceable, both for draught and carriage; and their horses, though slight, are lively.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } According to the best
AND CUSTOMS. } calculation, Portugal con-**
tains near two million of inhabitants. By a survey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom, 3,344 parishes, and 1,742,230 lay persons (which is but 522 laity to each parish on a medium) besides about 300,000 ecclesiastics of both sexes.

The modern Portuguese retain nothing of that adventurous enterprising spirit that rendered their forefathers so illustrious 300 years ago. They have, ever since the house of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues, though some noble exceptions are still remaining among them, and no people are so little obliged as the Portuguese are to the reports of historians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakness of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of disobliging their powerful neighbours, and that inactivity has proved the source of pride, and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude, and above all, an intemperate passion for revenge. They are, if possible, more superstitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more state than the Spaniards themselves. Among the lower people, thieving is commonly practised, and all ranks are accused of being unfair in their dealings, especially with strangers. It is hard, however, to say what alteration may be made in the character of the Portuguese, by the expulsion of the jesuits, and the diminution of the papal influence among them, but above all, by that spirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour of their gratitude, is now so much encouraged by their court and ministry.

The Portuguese are neither so tall, nor so well made as the Spaniards, whose habits and customs they imitate, only the Portuguese quality affect to be more gayly and richly dressed. The Portuguese ladies are thin and small of stature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expressive, and their features generally regular. They are esteemed to be generous, moderate, and witty. They dress like the Spanish ladies, with much awkwardness and affected gravity, but in general more magnificent, and they are taught by their husbands to exact from their servants an homage, that in other countries is

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paid only to royal personages. The furniture of the houses, especially of their grandees, is rich and superb to excess; and they maintain an incredible number of domestics, as they never discharge any who survive, after serving their ancestors.

RELIGION.] The established religion of Portugal is popery in the strictest sense. The Portuguese have a patriarch, but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, unless when a quarrel subsisted between the courts of Rome and Lisbon. The power of his holiness in Portugal has been of late so much curtailed, that it is difficult to describe the religious state of that country; all we know is, that the royal revenues are greatly encreased at the expence of the religious institutions in the kingdom. The power of the inquisition is now taken out of the hands of ecclesiastics, and converted to a state-trap for the benefit of the crown.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are those of Braga, Evora, and Lisbon. The first of these has ten suffragan bishops; the second two; and the last ten, including those of the Portuguese settlements abroad. The patriarch of Lisbon is generally a cardinal, and a person of the highest birth.

LANGUAGE.] The Portuguese language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. Their Pater-noster runs thus: *Padre nosso que estas nos Cers, santificado seio o tu nome; venha a nos ten reyno, seia feita a tua vontade, assi nos ceos, como na terra. O paonossa de cadatia, dano lo oie n'estodia. E perdoa nos seuhor, as nossas devidas, assi como nos perdoamos a os nossos devedores. E nao nos dexes cabir em tentatio, mas libra nos do mal. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] These are so few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by those of the Portuguese themselves, who have the smallest tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by the Portuguese, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable state of ignorance; but what their success may be, I shall not pretend to say. It is universally allowed that the defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. The ancestors of the present Portuguese, were certainly possessed of more true knowledge, with regard to astronomy, geography, and navigation, than all the world besides, about the middle of the 16th century, and for some time after. Camoens, who himself was a great adventurer and voyager, was possessed of a true, but neglected poetical genius.

UNIVERSITIES.] These are Lisbon, Evora and Coimbra; but that of Lisbon scarcely deserves the name of an university.

CURIOSITIES.] The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned form the chief of these. The remains of some castles in the Moorish taste are still standing. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almost entire and deservedly admired. The walls of Santareen are said to be of Roman work likewise. The church and monastery near Lisbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpressibly magnificent, and several monasteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. To these curiosities we may add, that his present most faithful majesty is possessed of the largest diamond, which was found in Brasil, that ever was perhaps seen in the world.

CHIEF CITIES.] The city of Oporto, consisting of about 50,000 inhabitants, carries on a great trade with England, especially for wines. Lisbon is the capital of Portugal, and is thought to contain 200,000 inhabitants. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, which also set the remainder on fire, upon All-Saints-day, 1755. It still contains many magnificent palaces, churches, and public buildings. Its situation (rising from the Tagus in the form of a crescent) renders its appearance at once delightful and superb, and it is deservedly accounted the greatest port in Europe, next to London and Amsterdam. The harbour is spacious and secure, and the city itself is guarded from any sudden attack towards the sea by forts, though they would make but a poor defence against ships of war.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] These, within these seven or eight years, have taken a surprizing turn in Portugal. The enterprising minister there, has projected many new companies and regulations, which have been again and again complained of, as unjust and oppressive to the privileges which the British merchants formerly enjoyed by the most solemn treaties.

The Portuguese exchange their wine, salt, and fruits, and most of their own materials for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and some coarse silk, and woollen, with a variety of straw work, and are excellent in preserving and candying fruit. The commerce of Portugal, though seemingly extensive, proves of little solid benefit to her, as the European nations, trading with her, engross all the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities, as her gold, diamonds, pearls, sugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Brasil; her ivory, ebony, spices, and drugs of Africa and East-India; in exchange for the almost numberless manufactures, and the vast quantity of corn and salt-fish, supplied by those European nations, and by the English North American colonies.

The

The Portuguese foreign settlements are, however, not only of immense value, but vastly improvable. They bring gold from their plantations on the east and west coasts of Africa, and likewise slaves for manufacturing their sugars and tobacco in Brasil, and their south American settlements.

What the value of these may be, is unknown perhaps to the Portuguese themselves, but they certainly abound in all the precious stones, and rich mines of gold and silver, and other commodities that are produced in the Spanish dominions there. It is computed that the king's fifth of gold, sent from Brasil, amounts annually to 300,000*l.* sterling, notwithstanding the vast contraband trade. The little shipping the Portuguese have, is chiefly employed in carrying on the slave trade, and a correspondence with Goa, their chief settlement in the East-Indies, and their other possessions there.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is absolute, but the nation still preserves an appearance of its ancient free constitution, in the meeting of the cortes or states, consisting, like our parliaments, of clergy, nobility and commons. They pretend to a right of being consulted upon the imposition of new taxes, but the only real power they have is that their assent is necessary in every new regulation, with regard to the succession. In this they are indulged, to prevent all future disputes on that account. The succession in Portugal may devolve to the female line.

All great preferments, both spiritual and temporal, are disposed of in the council of state, which is composed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the secretary of state. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treasury courts do the finances. The council of the palace is the highest tribunal that can receive appeals, but the Casa da Supplicação is a tribunal, from which no appeal can be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above 3,000,000 and a half sterling, annually. The customs and duties on goods exported, and imported, are excessive, and farmed out, but if the Portuguese ministry should succeed in all their ambitious projects, and in establishing exclusive companies, to the prejudice of the British trade, the inhabitants will be able to bear these taxes without murmuring. Foreign merchandize pays 23 per cent. on importation, and fish from Newfoundland 25 per cent. Fish taken in the neighbouring seas and rivers pay 27 per cent. and the tax upon lands and cattle that are sold is 10 per cent. The

king draws a considerable revenue from the several orders of knighthood, of which he is grand master. The pope, in consideration of the large sums he draws out of Portugal, gives the king the money arising from indulgencies and licences to eat flesh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now increased by the suppression of religious orders and institutions.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portuguese government depends chiefly for protection on England, and therefore they have for many years shamefully neglected both their army and fleet. Their troops in time of peace ought to amount to 14,000, but they are without discipline or courage, and their regiments are thin. The present king, however, since the late invasion of his dominions by the French and Spaniards, has employed English and foreign officers, for disciplining his troops, and repairing his fortifications. The marine of Portugal in 1754, consisted only of 12 ships of war, who were employed as convoys and carriers, but were quite unprovided for action. The present king is preparing to put his fleet upon a more respectable footing.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The king's titles are, king of Portugal, and the Algarves, lord of Guinea, and of the navigation conquest and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and Brasil. The last king was complimented by the pope, with the title of his most Faithful majesty. That of his eldest son is prince of Brasil.

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five escutcheons, azure, placed cross-wise, each charged with as many besants as the first, placed, salter-wise, and pointed fable, for Portugal. The shield bordered, gules, charged with seven towers, or, three in chief, and two in each flanch. The crest is a crown, or, under the two flanches, and the base of the shield appears at the end of it; two crossies, the first flower-de-luce, vert, which is for the order of Avis, and the second petee, gules, for the order of Christ; the motto is changeable, each king assuming a new one; but it is frequently these words, *Pro Rege et Grege*, viz. For the King and the People.

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The title and distinctions of their nobility are pretty much the same with those of Spain. Their orders of knighthood are four; 1. That of Christ; 2. The order of James; 3. The order of Avis. All those orders have large commanderies, and revenues annexed to them. The order of Malta has likewise 23 commanderies in Portugal.

HISTORY OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.] Spain was probably first peopled from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous, or from

from Africa, from which it is only separated by the narrow strait of Gibraltar. The Phenicians sent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the rise of Rome and Carthage, the possession of this kingdom became an object of contention between those powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their possession until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths.

These, in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the 7th century, had possessed themselves of the finest kingdoms of Asia and Africa; and not content with the immense regions that formerly composed great part of the Assyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they cross the Mediterranean, ravage Spain, and establish themselves in the southern provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelago is mentioned as the first Old Spanish prince who distinguished himself against these infidels, (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors) and he took the title of king of Asturia about the year 720.

His successes animated other Christian princes to take arms likewise, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many ages were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars. In the mean while, every adventurer was entitled to the conquests he made upon the Moors, till Spain at last was divided into 12 or 14 kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared, by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his son, Alphonso, threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himself king. A series of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1475, when all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Isabella, the heiress, and afterwards queen, of Castile, who took Granada, and expelled the Moors and Jews, to the number of 170,000 families, out of Spain. I shall, in their proper places, mention the vast acquisitions made at this time to Spain by the discovery of America, and the first expeditions of the Portuguese to the East-Indies, by the discovery of the Cape of Good-Hope; but the successes of both nations were attended with disagreeable consequences.

The expulsion of the Moors and Jews, in a manner depopulated Spain of artists, labourers, and manufacturers; and the discovery of America not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards most deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Isabella introduced the popish inquisition, with all its horrors, into their dominions,

dominions, as a safeguard against the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V. of the house of Austria, and emperor of Germany, succeeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. The extensive possessions of the house of Austria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, America, from whence he drew immense treasures, began to alarm the jealousy of neighbouring princes, but could not satisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him constantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his own Protestant subjects, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic church. At last, after a long and turbulent reign, he came to a resolution that filled all Europe with astonishment, the withdrawing himself entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in order that he might spend the remainder of his days in retirement and solitude*.

Agreeable

* Charles, of all his vast possessions, reserved nothing for himself but an annual pension of 100,000 crowns; and chose for the place of his retreat, a vale in Spain, of no great extent, watered by a small brook, and surrounded by rising grounds, covered with lofty trees. He gave strict orders, that the stile of the building which he erected there, should be such as suited his present situation, rather than his former dignity. It consisted only of six rooms, four of them in the form of friars cells, with naked walls; and the other two, each twenty feet square, were hung with brown cloth, and furnished in the most simple manner: they were all level with the ground, with a door on one side into a garden, of which Charles himself had given the plan, and had filled it with various plants, which he proposed to cultivate with his own hands. After spending some time in the city of Ghent in Flanders, the place of his nativity, he set out for Zealand in Holland, where he prepared to embark for Spain, accompanied by his son, and a numerous retinue of princes and nobility; and taking an affectionate and last farewell of Philip and his attendants, he set out, on the 17th of Sept. 1556, under convoy of a large fleet of Spanish, Flemish, and English ships. As soon as he landed in Spain, he fell prostrate on the ground; and considering himself now as dead to the world, he kissed the earth, and said, "Naked came I out of my mother's womb, and naked I now return to thee, thou common mother of mankind." Some of the Spanish nobility paid their court to him as he passed along to the place of his retreat; but they were so few in number, and their attendance was so negligent, that Charles observed it, and felt for the first time, that he was no longer a monarch. But he was more deeply affected with his son's ingratitude, who, forgetting already how much he owed to his father's bounty, obliged him to remain some weeks upon the road, before he paid him the first moiety of that small portion, which was all that he had reserved of so many kingdoms. At last the money was paid, and Charles having dismissed a great number of his domestics, whose attendance he thought would be superfluous, he entered into his humble retreat with twelve domestics only. Here he buried in solitude and silence, his grandeur, his ambition, together with all those vast projects which, during half a century, had alarmed and agitated Europe, filling every kingdom in it, by turns, with the terror of his arms, and the dread of being subjected to his power. Here he enjoyed, perhaps, more complete satisfaction than all his grandeur had ever yielded him. Far from taking any part in the political transactions of the princes of Europe, he restrained his curiosity even from any enquiry concerning them; and he seemed to view the busy scene which he had abandoned, with all the contempt and indifference arising from

Agreeable to this resolution, he resigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the presence of his principal nobility, to his son Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the house of Austria into two branches; Spain, with all its possessions in Africa and the new world, also the Netherlands, and some Italian states, remained with the elder branch, whilst the empire, Hungary, and Bohemia fell to the lot of the younger, which they still possess.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was austere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cause of popery. His marriage with queen Mary of England, an unfeeling bigot like himself, his unsuccessful addresses to her sister Elizabeth, his resentment and unsuccessful wars with that princess, his tyranny in the Low-Countries, the revolt and loss of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned.

In Portugal he was more successful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wise and brave princes, fell to Sebastian about the year 1557. Sebastian lost his life and a fine army, in a headstrong, unjust, and ill-concerted expedition against the Moors in Africa; and soon after, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family of Portugal pretended to a prior right. By this acquisition Spain became possessed of the Portuguese settlements in India, some of which she still holds.

The descendants of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had so totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almost unmolested in their own dominions.

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from his thorough experience of its vanity, as well as from the pleasing reflection of having disengaged himself from its cares.

New amusements and new objects now occupied his mind; sometimes he cultivated the plants in his garden with his own hands; sometimes he rode out to the neighbouring wood on a little horse, the only one that he kept, attended by a single servant on foot. When his infirmities confined him to his apartment, he either admitted a few gentlemen who resided in the neighbourhood, and entertained them familiarly at his table; or he employed himself in studying the principles and in forming curious works of mechanism, of which he had always been remarkably fond. He was particularly curious with regard to the construction of clocks and watches; and having found, after repeated trials, that he could not bring any two of them to go exactly alike, he reflected, it is said, with a mixture of surprize and regret on his own folly, in having bestowed so much time and labour on the more vain attempt of bringing mankind to a precise uniformity of sentiment concerning the intricate and mysterious doctrines of religion. And here, after two years retirement, he was seized with a fever, which carried him off in the 59th year of his age.

dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once so tyrannical and insolent over the Portuguese, that in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conspiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. upon their throne; and ever since, Portugal has been a distinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Austrian line, failing in the person of Charles II. who left no issue, Philip, duke of Anjou, second son to the Dauphin of France, and grandson to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne, by virtue of his predecessor's will, in the name of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody struggle with the German branch of the house of Austria, supported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the conclusion of the peace of Utrecht, 1713. And thus Lewis XIV. thro' a masterly train of politics, (for in his wars to support his grandson, as we have already observed, he was almost ruined) accomplished his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich possessions in America and the East-Indies, from the house of Austria to that of his own family of Bourbon; an event which proved fatal to the commerce of Great Britain, especially in the American seas, where a glaring partiality has been shewn to the French nation ever since, and renders our being possessed of a port in the South-Seas of equal importance to that of Gibraltar, at the entrance of the Mediterranean, which serves as a curb on the united strength of France and Spain in Europe.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was disturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand VI. who, in 1759, died without issue, through melancholy for the loss of his wife. Ferdinand was succeeded by his brother, Charles III. the present king of Spain, son to Philip V. by his wife, the princess of Parma.

The Portuguese could not have supported themselves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and upon the restoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princess of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain, in 1668, to give up all pretensions to that kingdom. Alphonso, son to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to disagree at once with his wife and his brother, Peter, and they uniting their interests, not only forced Alphonso to resign his crown, but obtained a dispensation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually consummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a second marriage, had sons, the eldest of whom was John, his successor, and father to his present Portuguese majesty, John, like his father, joined the grand

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grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much service in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, they had almost ruined the allies, by occasioning the loss of the great battle of Almanza in 1707. John died in 1750, and was succeeded by his son, his present majesty. In 1760, the king was attacked by assassins, and narrowly escaped with his life in a solitary place near his country palace of Belim. The executions of nobility and others which followed, are shocking to humanity, especially as we know of no clear proof against the parties. From this conspiracy is dated the expulsion of the jesuits (who are supposed to have been at the bottom of the treason) from all parts of his most faithful majesty's dominions. The present king having no son, his eldest daughter was married, by dispensation from the pope, to don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown falling into a foreign family, and the next year, 1761, she was brought to bed of a son, called the prince of Beira.

In 1762, when war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards, and their allies the French, pretended to force his faithful majesty into their alliance, and to garrison his seaports against the English with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this proposal, and declared war against the Spaniards, who, without resistance, entered Portugal with a considerable army, while a body of French threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of those courts were in earnest upon this occasion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain, in consideration of Portugal's apparent danger. It is certain that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that had they been in earnest, they might have been masters of Lisbon long before the arrival of the English troops to the assistance of the Portuguese.

Be that as it will, a few English battalions put an effectual stop, by their courage and manœuvres, to the progress of the invasion. Portugal was saved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainebleau in 1763. Notwithstanding this eminent service performed by the English to the Portuguese, who had been often saved before in the like manner, the latter, ever since that period, cannot be said to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The most cautious distinctions and frivolous pretences have been invented by the Portuguese ministers for cramping the English trade, and depriving them of their unquestionable privileges; not to mention that his most faithful majesty is said now to have become a party in the famous family compact of the house of Bourbon.

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As to Spain, her king is so warmly attached to that compact, that he even hazarded his American dominions to support it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the Havannah, in the island of Cuba, and thereby rendered herself entirely mistress of the navigation of the Spanish plate fleets. Many circumstances concurred to make a peace necessary to England, and upon its conclusion, the Havannah was restored to Spain.

His present catholic majesty does all he can to oblige his subjects to desist from their antient dress and manners, and carried his endeavours so far, that it occasioned so dangerous an insurrection at Madrid, as obliged him to part with his minister *.

I T A L Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|-------------|-----------|-----------------------------|
| Length 600 | } between | { 38 and 47 north latitude. |
| Breadth 400 | | |

THE form of Italy, however, renders it very difficult to ascertain its extent and dimensions; for some say, that according to the best accounts it is, from the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about 750 miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to those of the dominions of the states of Venice, which is its greatest breadth, about 400 miles, though in some parts it is scarce 100.

BOUNDARIES.] Nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy; for towards the east it is bounded by the gulph of Venice, or Adriatic sea; on the south and west by the Mediterranean sea; and on the north, by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corsica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other islands, are divided and exhibited in the following table.

* Joseph, king of Portugal, was born in 1714; his queen, Mary-Anne-Victoria, Infanta of Spain, in 1716, and have issue, besides three more daughters,

Maria-Frances-Isabella, princess of Brazil, born in 1734, married, 1760, to her uncle, Don Pedro, by whom she has issue,

1. Joseph-Frances Xavier, prince of Beira, born in 1761.

2. John-Maria-Josepha.

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| Countries Names. | | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------|---------------|---------|----------|---------------|
| Italy. | | | | | |
| To the king of Sardinia | Piedmont | 6619 | 140 | 98 | Turin |
| | Savoy | 3572 | 87 | 60 | Chambery |
| | Monterrat | 446 | 40 | 22 | Casal |
| | Alleffandrine | 204 | 27 | 20 | Alexandria |
| | Oneglia | 132 | 24 | 7 | Oneglia |
| To the king of Naples | Sardinia I. | 6600 | 135 | 57 | Cagliari |
| | Naples | 22,000 | 275 | 120 | Naples |
| | Sicily I. | 9400 | 180 | 92 | Palermo |
| To the emperor | Milan | 5431 | 155 | 70 | Milan |
| | Mantua | 700 | 47 | 27 | Mantua |
| | Mirandola | 120 | 19 | 10 | Mirandola |
| | Pope's dominions | 14,348 | 235 | 143 | ROME |
| To their respective princes | Tuscany | 6640 | 115 | 94 | Florence |
| | Massa | 82 | 16 | 11 | Massa |
| | Parma | 1225 | 48 | 37 | Parma |
| | Modena | 1560 | 65 | 39 | Modena |
| | Piombino | 100 | 22 | 18 | Piombino |
| | Monaco | 24 | 12 | 4 | Monaco |
| Republics | Lucca | 286 | 28 | 15 | Lucca |
| | St. Marino | 8 | | | St. Marino |
| To France | Genoa | 2400 | 160 | 25 | Genoa |
| | Corfica I. | 2520 | 90 | 38 | Bastia |
| | Venice | 8434 | 175 | 95 | Venice |
| To Venice | Istria P. | 1245 | 62 | 32 | Capo d'Istria |
| | Dalmatia P. | 1400 | 135 | 20 | Zara |
| | Iles of Dalmatia | 1364 | | | |
| | Cephalonia | 428 | 40 | 18 | Cephalonia |
| Islands in the Venetian dominions | Corfu, or Corcyra | 194 | 31 | 10 | Corfu |
| | Zant, or Zaeynthus | 120 | 23 | 12 | Zant |
| | St. Maura | 56 | 12 | 7 | St. Maura |
| | Little Cephalonia | 14 | 7 | 3 | |
| | Ithaca olim | | | | |
| Total | | 75,576 | | | |

N. Lat. 41-54.
E. Lon. 12-45.

SOIL AND AIR.] The happy soil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; each district has its peculiar excellency and commodity; wines, the most delicious fruits, and oil, are the most general productions. As much corn grows here as serves the inhabitants; and was the ground duly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheefes, particularly those called Parmefans, and their native silk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air; and some parts of Italy bear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental causes make on the face of nature; for the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the most salubrious air of any place perhaps on the globe, is now almost pestilential through the decrease of inhabitants, which has occasioned a stagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps, or in

in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being, in many places, covered with snow in winter. The Appennines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almost divide Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries on the south being warm, those on the north mild and temperate. The sea-breezes refresh the kingdom of Naples so much, that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwithstanding its southern situation. In general, the air of Italy may be said to be dry and pure.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and Appennines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Vesuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, the Tiber, which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the southern boundary between Italy and the antient Cisalpine Gaul.

The lakes of Italy are, the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Isco, and Garda, in the north; the Perugia or Trasimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the middle.

**SEAS, GULPHS OR BAYS, CAPES, } Without a knowledge
PROMONTORIES, AND STRAITS. }** of these, neither the antient Roman authors, nor the history, nor geography of Italy, can be understood. The seas of Italy are, the gulphs of Venice, or the Adriatic sea. The seas of Naples, Tuscany, and Genoa. The bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policastro, Rhegio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieste, Istria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; and the strait of Messina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulphs and bays in the Italian islands, are those of Fiorenzo, Bastia, Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corso, Bonifacio, and Ferro, in Corsica; and the strait of Bonifacio, between Corsica and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oristagni; Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulphs of Messina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazara, Syracuse, and Catania; cape Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Passaro, and Alessia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and Porto Longone, in the island of Ebba.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral springs, some hot, some warm, and many of sulphureous, chalybeat, and medicinal qualities. Many of its

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mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable stones. Iron and copper mines are found in a few places; and a mill for forging and fabricating these metals is erected near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is said to contain mines of gold, silver, lead, iron, sulphur, and allum, tho' they are now neglected; and curious chrystals and coral are found on the coast of Corsica. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL
PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA
AND LAND.

Besides the rich vegetable productions mentioned under the article of soil, Italy produces citrons, and such quantities of chesnuts, cherries, plums, and other fruits, that they are of little value to the proprietors.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy, either by land or sea, and those of France and Germany already mentioned.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS,
MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND
DIVERSIONS.

Authors are greatly divided on the head of Italian population. This may be owing, in a great measure, to the partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The number of the king of Sardinia's subjects in Italy is about 2,300,000. The city of Milan itself, by the best accounts, contains 300,000, and the duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers of natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only of those who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have arisen whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. I am apt to believe that the present inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna di Roma, and some other of the most beautiful parts of Italy, are at present in a manner desolate; but we are to consider that the modern Italians are in a great measure free from the unintermitting wars, not to mention the transmigration of colonies, which formerly, even down to the 16th century, depopulated their country. Add to this, that the princes and states of Italy now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which undoubtedly promotes population; so that it may not perhaps be extravagant, if we assign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but some calculations greatly exceed that number. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and have such meaning in their looks, that they have greatly assisted the ideas of their painters. Their women are well shaped, and very amorous. The marriages ties, especially of

of the better sort, are of very little value in Italy. Every wife has her gallant or cicisbeo, with whom she keeps company, and sometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence on either side. This practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice. With regard to the modes of life, the best quality of a modern Italian is sobriety, and contentment under the public government. With great taciturnity they discover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more superstitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native customs, and seem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondness for greens, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and satisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peasant can be luxurious at a very small expence. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain five descendents of the antient Romans, yet the present inhabitants speak of themselves as successors to the conquerors of the world, and look upon the rest of mankind with contempt.

The dress of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium between the French volatility and the solemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans are commonly dressed in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in the fine arts: though they are as yet but despicable proficients in the sciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal music at a very dear rate, by emasculating their males when young, to which their mercenary parents agree without remorse.

The Italians, the Venetians especially, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many customs that are considered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their sons should throw themselves away by unsuitable marriage, or contract diseases by promiscuous amours, hire mistresses for them for a month or a year, or some determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licenced trade. The Italian courtezans or bona robas, as they are called, make a kind of profession in all their cities. Masquerading and gaming, horse-races without riders, and conversations or assemblies, are the chief diversions of the Italians, excepting religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, describing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians and their manner of living. Give what scope you please to your fancy, says he, you will never imagine half the disagreeableness that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian nastiness, offer to an Englishman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps

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two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can express the wretchedness of the other inns. No other beds than those of straw, with a mattress of straw, and next to that a dirty sheet, sprinkled with water, and consequently damp; for a covering, you have another sheet as coarse as the first, like one of our kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlet. The bedstead consists of four wooden forms or benches: an English peer and peeress must lye in this manner, unless they carry an upholsterer's shop with them. There are, by the bye, no such things as curtains; and in all their inns, the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been washed since it was first laid. One of the most indelicate customs here is, that men, and not women, make the ladies beds, and would do every office of a maid servant, if suffered. They never scour their pewter; their knives are of the same colour. In these inns they make you pay largely, and send up ten times as much as you can eat. The soup, like wash, with pieces of liver swimming in it; a plate full of brains, fried in the shape of fritters; a dish of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your arrival) boiled to rags, without any the least kind of sauce or herbage; another fowl, just killed, stewed as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey roasted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are so stringy, you may divide the breast into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal, and, generally speaking, it is the only eatable morsel that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceeding bad, and the butter so rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of our smell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, are the infinite numbers of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infest us by day and night.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Italians is Roman-catholic. The inquisition here is little more than a sound; and persons of all religions live unmolested in Italy, provided no gross insult is offered to their worship. In the introduction, we have given an account of the rise and establishment of popery in Italy, from whence it spread over all Europe; likewise of the causes and symptoms of its decline. The ecclesiastical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in describing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holiness, are seventy, but that number is seldom or never complete: they are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the

the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalship, the pope regulates himself according to the nomination of the princes who profess that religion. His chief minister is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amassing what he can. When met in a consistory, the cardinals pretend to controul the pope, in matters both spiritual and temporal, and have been sometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is seldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a scene where the cardinals principally endeavour to display their parts, and where many transactions pass which hardly shew their inspiration from the Holy Ghost. During the election of a pope in 1721, the animosities ran so high, that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the inkstandishes at each other. We shall here give an extract from the creed of pope Pius IV. 1560, before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the protestant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Christians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows.

“ I most firmly admit and embrace the apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions, and all other constitutions of the same church.

“ I do admit the holy scriptures in the same sense that holy mother church doth, whose business it is to judge of the true sense and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous consent of the fathers.

“ I do profess and believe that there are seven sacraments of the law, truly and properly so called, instituted by Jesus Christ our Lord, and necessary to the salvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptism, confirmation, eucharist, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of these, baptism, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without sacrilege. I do also receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her solemn administration of the abovesaid sacraments.

“ I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent * concerning original sin and justification.

“ I do

* A convocation of Roman-catholic divines, who assembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, anno 1546, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to suppress what they were pleased to term the Rising Heresies in the church.

“ I do also profess that in the mass there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and the dead, and that in the most holy sacrament of the eucharist there is truly, really, and substantially, the body and blood, together with the soul and divinity of our Lord Jesus Christ; and that there is a conversion made of the whole substance of the bread into the body, and of the whole substance of the wine into the blood; which conversion the catholic church calls Transubstantiation.

“ I confess that under one kind only, whole and intire, Christ and a true sacrament is taken and received.

“ I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the souls kept prisoners there do receive help by the suffrages of the faithful.

“ I do likewise believe that the saints reigning together with Christ are to be worshipped and prayed unto; and that they do offer prayers unto God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

“ I do most firmly assert, that the images of Christ, of the blessed Virgin the mother of God, and of other saints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them*.

“ I do likewise affirm, that the power of indulgence was left by Christ to the church, and that the use of them is very beneficial to christian people †.

“ I

* An English Traveller speaking of a religious procession some years ago at Florence, in Italy, describes it as follows. I had occasion, says he, to see a procession, where all the nobles of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniversary of a charitable institution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About two hundred of these virgins walked in procession, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in sack-cloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, howling and bellowing the titanic; but the greatest object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, standing within a gilt frame, dressed in a gold stuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of false jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the fashion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the cross; but when the Lady Mother appeared on the shoulders of three or four lusty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt.

† A long list of indulgences, or fees of the pope's chancery, may be seen in a book printed 150 years ago, by authority of the then pope. It has been translated into English, under the title of *Rome a great Custom-house for Sin*; from which we shall give a few extracts.

ABSOLUTIONS.

For him that stole holy or consecrated things out of a holy place, 10s. 6d.

For him who lies with a woman in the church, 9s.

For a layman for murdering a layman, 7s. 6d.

For him that kills his father, mother, wife or sister, 10s. 6d.

For laying violent hands on a *Magymen*, so it be without effusion of blood, 10s. 6d.

Vol. II.

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For

“ I do acknowledge the holy, catholic, and apostolical Roman church, to be the mother and mistress of all churches; and I do promise and swear true obedience to the bishop of Rome, the successor of St. Peter, the prince of the apostles, and vicar of Jesus Christ.

“ I do undoubtedly receive and profess all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the sacred canons and œcumenical councils, and especially by the holy synod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all heresies condemned, rejected, and anathematized by the church, I do likewise condemn, reject, and anathematize.”

ARCHBISHOPRICS.] There are thirty-eight archbishoprics in Italy, but the suffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for the reader to depend upon, the pope creating or suppressing them as he pleases.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its smoothness, and the facility with which it enters into musical compositions. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is easily mastered by a good classical scholar. Almost every state in Italy has a different dialect; and the prodigious pains taken by the literary societies there, may at last fix the Italian into a standard

For a priest that keeps a concubine; as also his dispensation for being irregular, 10s. 6d.

For him that lyeth with his *own mother, sister, or godmother*, 7s. 6d.

For him that *bars* his neighbour's house, 12s.

For him that forgeth the pope's hand, 1l. 7s.

For him that forgeth letters apostolical, 1l. 7s.

For him that takes two holy orders in one day, 2l. 6s.

For a king for going to the holy sepulchre without licence, 7l. 10s.

DISPENSATIONS.

For a bastard to enter all holy orders, 18s.

For a man or woman that is found hanged, that they may have christian burial, 1l. 7s. 6d.

LICENCES.

For a layman to change his vow of going to Rome to visit the apostolic churches, 13s.

To eat flesh and white meats in Lent, and other fasting days, 10s. 6d.

That a king or queen shall enjoy such indulgences, as if they went to Rome, 15l.

For a queen to adopt a child, 300l.

To marry in times prohibited, 2l. 5s.

To eat flesh in times prohibited, 1l. 4s.

Not to be tied to fasting days, 1l. 4s.

For a town to take out of a church them (murderers) that have taken sanctuary therein, 4l. 10s.

FACULTIES.

To absolve all delinquents, 3l.

To dispense with irregularities, 3l.

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standard language. At present, the Tuscan stile and writing is most in request.

The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Padre nostro, che sei ne cieli, sia santificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volonta sia fatta, si come in cielo cosi anche in terra; dacci hoggi il nostro pane cotidiano; remittici i nostri debiti, si come noi anchora remittiamo a nostri debitori; e non indurci in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perchioche tuo è il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria in sempiterno. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, }
STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS. } Introduction,
we have particularized some of the great men which ancient Italy has produced. In modern times, that is, since the revival of learning, some Italians have shone in controversial learning, but they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own persuasion. The mathematics and natural philosophy owe much to Galileo, Torricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and several other Italians. Strada is an excellent historian; and the History of the Council of Trent, by Fra. Paoli, is a standard work. Guicciardin, Bentivolio, and Davila, have been much commended as historians by their several admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an historian, and as a political writer. His comedies are excellent; and the liberality of his sentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. The greatest modern genius of Italy in poetry is Tasso; though some have presumed to put Ariosto in competition with him. Sannazarius, Fracastorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have distinguished themselves by the elegance, correctness, and spirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compositions not yielding to the Classics themselves. Socinus, who has puzzled so many orthodox divines, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, sculptors, architects, and musicians, are unrivalled not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the sack of Constantinople by the Turks, revived taste likewise, and gave mankind a relish for truth and beauty in design and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, assisted by the ancients, struck out a new creation with his pencil, and still stands at the head of the painting art. Michael Angelo Buonaroti, united in his own person, painting, sculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried sculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veronese, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their several manners. The same may be said of Corelli, and other Italians, in music. At present, Italy cannot justly boast of any paramount genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Those of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Pisa, Naples, Salerno, and Perugia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Italy is the native
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } country of all that is
stupendous, great, or beautiful, either in ancient or modern
times. A library might be filled by descriptions and delineations
of all that is rare and curious in the arts; nor does the
bounds of this work admit of mentioning even their general
heads. All I can do is to give the reader the names of those
objects that are most distinguished either for antiquity or ex-
cellence.

The amphitheatres claim the first rank, as a species of the
most striking magnificence; that which was erected by Vespasian,
and finished by Domitian, called the Colosæo, now
stands at Rome. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by
the consul Flaminius, is thought to be the most entire of any
in Italy. The ruins of other theatres and amphitheatres are
visible in other places. The triumphal arches of Vespasian,
Septimius Severus, and Constantine the Great, are still standing,
though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and
temples, particularly that of the Pantheon, answer all the
ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The pillars of
Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter
covered with instructive sculptures, are still remaining. A
traveller forgets the devastations of the northern barbarians,
when he sees the rostrated column erected by Duillius, in
commemoration of the first naval victory the Romans gained
over the Carthaginians. The statue of the wolf giving suck
to Romulus and Remus, with visible marks of the stroke of
lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the very original brass plates
containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thousand other
identical antiquities, some of them transmitted unhurt to the
present times; not to mention medals and the infinite variety
of seals and engraved stones which abound in the cabinets of
the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furnished with
busts and statues fabricated in the times of the republic and
the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the first 200
miles, the second 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are
in many places still entire; nor is the reader to expect any
description of the magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs,
bridges, and the like, that present themselves all over the
country of Italy.

The subterraneous constructions of Italy are as stupendous
as those above ground, witness the cloacæ and catacombs, or
repositories

repositories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 20 years since a painter's apprentice discovered the ancient city of Pæstum or Posidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, still standing; for so indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new discovery to the learned. An inexhaustible mine of curiosities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Vesuvius, and sunk in an earthquake 1700 years ago.

With regard to modern curiosities, they are as bewildering as the remains of antiquity. Rome itself contains 300 churches filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and sculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St. Peter, at Rome, is the most astonishing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps existed; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultless. The house and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination, notwithstanding the ridiculous romance that composes its history.

The natural curiosities of Italy, though remarkable, are not so numerous as its artificial. Mount Vesuvius, near Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. Mount Ætna is 60 miles in circumference, and at the top there is a basin of sulphur six miles round, from whence sometimes issue rivers of melted minerals that run down into the sea. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people perished. Between the lakes Agnano and Puzzeli there is a valley called Solfatara, because vast quantities of sulphur are continually forced out of the cliffs by subterranean fires. The grotto del Canæ is remarkable for its poisonous steams, and is so called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. The poison of the tarantula, an insect or spider, is well known to be removed only by music and dancing; and scorpions, vipers, and serpents, are common in Apulia.

ARMS.] The chief armorial bearings in Italy, are as follow. The pope, as sovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his escutcheon, gules, consisting of a long headcape, or, surmounted with a cross, pearly and garnished with three royal crowns, together with the two keys of St. Peter, placed in saltier. The arms of Tuscany, or, five roundles, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three flower-de-luces, or. Those of Venice, azure, a lion winged, sejant, or, holding under one of his paws, a book

covered, argent. Lastly, those of Genoa, argent, a cross, gules, with a crown closed for the island of Corsica; and for supporters, two griffins, or.

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION, AND CHIEF CITIES. } Thus far I have been enabled to treat of Italy in general, but I am here constrained to deviate from my usual method. The Italian states are not like the republics of Holland, or Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable; for every Italian state has distinct forms of government, trade, and interests. I shall be therefore obliged to take a separate view of each, to assist the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

The duke of SAVOY, or as he is usually stiled, king of SARDINIA, taking his royal title from that island, is now a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or keeper, against the French. He has an order of knighthood which is called the Annunciade, instituted by the first duke of Savoy, to commemorate his brave defence of Rhodes against the infidels.

His Sardinian majesty's capital, Turin, is strongly fortified, and one of the finest cities in Europe; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are forced to seek their bread all over the world. They are esteemed a fimple but very honest people. The king is so absolute, that his revenues consist of what he pleases to raise upon his subjects. His ordinary income, besides his own family provinces, cannot be less than 500,000 l. sterling, out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace. During a war, when assisted by foreign subsidies, he can bring to the field 40,000 men. The aggrandizement of his present Sardinian majesty is chiefly owing to England, to whom, by his situation and neighbourhood, he is a natural ally, for the preservation of the balance of power in Europe.

The MILANESE, belonging to the house of Austria, is a most formidable state, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country is almost incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very strong, and furnished with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taste, which contains a very rich treasury, consisting chiefly of ecclesiastical furniture, composed of gold, silver, and precious stones. The revenue of the duchy is above 300,000 l. annually, which is supposed to maintain an army of 30,000 men. The natives are fond of literary and political assemblies, where they hold forth almost

almost on all subjects. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the natives of Milan make but few exports, so that its revenue, unless the court of Vienna should pursue some other system of improvement, cannot be much bettered.

The republic of GENOA is vastly degenerated from its ancient power and opulence, though the spirit of trade still continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a most superb city. The inhabitants of distinction dress in black, in a plain, if not an uncouth manner, perhaps, to save expences. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants (but some writers greatly diminish that number) among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to six galleys, and about 600 soldiers. The chief safety of this republic consists in the jealousy of other European powers, because to any one of them it would be a most valuable acquisition. The common people are wretched beyond expression, as is the soil of its territory. Near the sea some parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is purely aristocratical, being entirely vested in the nobility.

VENICE is one of the most celebrated republics in the world, on a count both of its constitution and former power. It is composed of several fine provinces on the continent of Italy, some islands in the Adriatic and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is seated on 72 islands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic sea, and is separated from the continent by a marshy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too shallow for large ships to navigate, which forms its principal strength. Venice preserves the vestiges of its ancient magnificence, but is in every respect degenerated except in the passion which its inhabitants still retain for music and mummery during their carnivals. They seem to have lost their ancient taste for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothicism. They have however lately had some spirited differences with the court of Rome, and seem to be disposed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the constitution of the republic, to which it is said they owe their independency, we can write little with any precision, because it is kept a mystery to all but the members, and even of them (such are its intricacies and checks) few or none know it perfectly. All we know for certain is, that like Genoa, the government is aristocratic, and that the nobility are divided into six classes, amounting in the whole to 2,500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the council. These

elect a doge or chief magistrate, in a peculiar manner by ballot, which is managed by gold and silver balls. The doge is invested with great state, and with emblems of supreme authority, but has very little power, and is shut up in the city as a prisoner. The government and laws are managed by five different councils of the nobles.

- As every Venetian of a noble family is himself noble, great numbers of them go about the streets begging, and generally present a silver or tin box, to strangers, to receive their alms. All the orders are dressed in black gowns, large wigs and caps, which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring, from his bucentaur or state-bergs, attended by those of all the nobility, is the most superb exhibition in Venice, but not comparable for magnificence to a lord mayor's shew. The inhabitants of Venice are said to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treasury, and the arsenal, are beyond expression. Over the several canals of Venice, are laid near 500 bridges, the greatest part of which are stone. The Venetians still have some manufactures in scarlet cloth, gold and silver stuffs, and above all, fine looking-glasses, all which bring in a considerable revenue to the owners; that of the state annually is said to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty pence of our money. Out of this are defrayed the expences of the state and the pay of the army, which in time of peace consists of 16,000 regular troops, (always commanded by a foreign general,) and 10,000 militia. They keep up a small fleet for curbing the intolencies of the piratical states of Barbary, and they have among them several orders of knight-hood, the chief of which are those of the Golden Star, so called from its badge, which is conferred only on the first quality, and the military order of St. Marc, the badge of which is a medal of that apostle.

In ecclesiastical matters the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power; and both of them are chosen by the senate; and all religions, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting protestants, are here tolerated in the free exercise of their religion.

The Venetians live in the perpetual extremes of the most dissipated debaucheries, or the most ridiculous devotion. Priests and nuns abandon themselves to the former, during the carnival, which is chiefly held in St. Marc's place, where sometimes 15,000 people assemble.

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The principal city of TUSCANY is Florence, which is now possessed by a younger branch of the house of Austria, after being long held by the illustrious house of Medicis, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and masterly in architecture, literature and the arts, especially those of painting and sculpture. It is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces, have been often described, but all description falls short of their contents, so that in every respect it is reckoned, after Rome, the second city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, take it all in all, is thought to be the standard of taste in female beauty and proportion, stands in a room called the Tribunal. The inscription on its base mentions its being made by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and surrounded by other master-pieces of sculpture, some of which are said to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek masters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which stands between mountains covered with olive trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders in the arts of painting, statuary, and architecture. It is a place of some strength, and contains an archbishop's see, and a university. The inhabitants boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Crusca, and several other academies are now established at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great state, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they sell from their cellar windows, and sometimes they even hang out a broken flask, as a sign where it may be bought. They deal, besides wine and fruits, in gold and silver stuffs. Since the accession of the archduke Peter Leopald, brother to the present emperor, to this duchy, a great reformation has been introduced, both into the government, and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuscany could bring to the field, upon occasion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its present revenues are above 500,000*l.* a year. The other principal towns of Tuscany, are Pisa, Leghorn, and Sienna; the first and last are much decayed.

The inhabitants of LUCCA, which is a small free commonwealth, lying on the Tuscan sea, in a most delightful plain, are the most industrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, so that though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000*l.* sterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and

and fruits, especially olives. This republic is under the protection of the house of Austria.

The republic of St. MARINO is here mentioned as a geographical curiosity. Its territories consist of a high, craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope, and the inoffensive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the small value of their territory, have preserved its constitution.

The duchy and city of PARMA, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guastalla, now form one of the most flourishing states in Italy of its extent. The soil of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richest fruits and pasturages, and contain considerable manufactures of silk. It is the seat of a bishop's see, and an university; and some of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Coreggio. The present duke of Parma, is a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to Don Philip the king of Spain's younger brother. This country was lately the seat of a bloody war between the Austrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings, but his catholic majesty, on his accession to the throne of Naples, is said to have carried with him thither, the most remarkable pictures, and moveable curiosities. The duke's court is thought to be the politest of any in Italy, and it is said that his revenues exceed 100,000 l. sterling a year, a sum which I am apt to think is exaggerated. The city of Parma is said to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year, is now much decayed. The government of it is annexed to that of the Milanese, in possession of the house of Austria. The capital is one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boast that Virgil was a native of their country.

The duchy of MODENA (formerly Mutina) is still governed by its own duke, the head of the house of Este, from whom the family of Brunswick descended. The duke is absolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. The duke is under the protection of the house of Austria, and is a vassal of the empire. His dominions, however, are far from being flourishing, though very improveable, they having been alternately wasted by the late belligerent powers in Italy.

The

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. The bad effects of Popish tyranny, superstition, and oppression, are here seen in the highest perfection. Those spots, which, under the masters of the world, were formed into so many terrestrial paradises, surrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious pestilential marshes and quagmires; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, affords at present a miserable subsistence to about five hundred. Notwithstanding this, the pope is a considerable temporal prince, and some suppose that his annual revenue amounts to above a million sterling, tho' some authors calculate them to be much higher. When we speak comparatively, the sum of a million sterling is too high a revenue to arise from his territorial possessions; his accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that sum, is now diminished by the suppression of the order of the Jesuits, from whom he drew vast supplies, and the measures taken by the popish powers, for preventing the great ecclesiastical issues of money to Rome. According to the best and latest accounts, the taxes upon the provisions and lodgings, furnished to foreigners, who spend immense sums in visiting his dominions, form now the greatest part of his accidental revenues. From what has happened, within these 20 years past, there is reason to believe that the pope's territories will be reduced to the limits, which the houses of Austria, and Bourbon, shall please to describe. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect. The discouragement of industry and agriculture, seems to be interwoven in the constitution of the papal government, which is vested in proud lazy ecclesiastics. Their indolence, and the fanaticism of their worship, infect their inferiors, who prefer begging, and imposing upon strangers, to industry and agriculture, especially as they must hold their properties, by the precarious tenure of the will of their superiors. In short, the inhabitants of many parts of the ecclesiastical state must perish through their sloth, did not the fertility of their soil spontaneously afford them subsistence. I am here, however, to make one general remark on Italy, which is, that the poverty and sloth of the lower ranks, do not take their rise from their natural dispositions.

This observation is not confined to the papal dominions. The Italian princes affected to be the patrons of all the curious and costly arts, and each vied with the other to make his court the repository of taste and magnificence. This passion disabled

disabled them from laying out money upon works of public utility, or from encouraging the industry, or relieving the wants of their subjects, and its miserable effects are seen in many parts of Italy. The splendour and furniture of churches in the papal dominions, are inexpressible, and partly account for the misery of the subjects. This censure, however, admits of exceptions, even in a manner at the gates of Rome.

Modern Rome contains, within its circuit, a vast number of gardens and vineyards. I have already touched upon its curiosities and antiquities. It stands upon the Tyber, an inconsiderable river, when compared to the Thames, and navigated by small boats, barges and lighters. The castle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortress, would be found to be a place of small strength, were it regularly besieged. The city standing upon the ruins of antient Rome lies much higher, so that it is difficult to distinguish the seven hills on which it was originally built. When we consider Rome, as it now stands, there is the strongest reason to believe that it exceeds antient Rome itself, in the magnificence of its structures; nothing in the old city, when mistress of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church, and perhaps many other churches in Rome, exceed in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utensils and furniture, her antient temples, though it must be acknowledged that the Pantheon must have been an amazing structure. The inhabitants of Rome in 1714, amounted to 143,000. If we consider that the spirit of travelling is much increased since that time, we cannot reasonably suppose them to be diminished at present.

There is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes, he has his guards, or *scirri*, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magistrates, both ecclesiastical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inspection of his holiness. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice legates. He monopolizes all the corn in his territories, and has always a sufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. The present pope, who has taken the name of Clement XIV. has wisely disclaimed all intention of opposing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but those of prayers and supplications.

I have under the head of religion mentioned the ecclesiastical government of the papacy.

As to the rota, and other subordinate chambers of this complicated jurisdiction, they are too numerous to be even named, and do not fall properly under my plan. Under a government so constituted, it cannot be supposed that the com-

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commercial exports of the ecclesiastical state are of much value.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bolognese, is the most considerable city in the ecclesiastical state, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government is under a legate a latere, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The people here live more sociably and comfortably, than the other subjects of the pope; and perhaps their distance from Rome, which is 165 miles north-west, has contributed to their ease. The rest of the ecclesiastical state contains many towns celebrated in ancient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of their flourishing state about the beginning of the 16th century; but they are at present little better than desolate, though here and there, a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is supported by the toil and sweat of the neighbouring peasants.

The grandeur of FERRARA, RAVENNA, RIMINI, URBINO, (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael) ANCONA, and many other states, and cities, illustrious in former times, are now to be seen only in their ruins, and ancient history. LORETTO, on the other hand, an obscure spot never thought or heard of, in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, and the prodigious resort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion industriously propagated by the Romish clergy, that the house, in which the Virgin Mary is said to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumstances, such as that all the trees, on the arrival of the sacred mansion, bowed with the profoundest reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this house, from being carried to other places, and exposed as reliicks to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a small apartment, separated from the others by a silver ballustrade, which has a gate of the same metal. It is impossible to describe the gold chains, the rings, and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is loaded, and the angels of solid gold, who are here placed on every side, are equally enriched with the most precious diamonds. To the superstition of Roman-catholic princes, Loretto is indebted for this mass of treasure. It has been matter of surprize, that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks upon Loretto, especially as it is badly fortified, and stands near the sea.

The

The king of NAPLES and SICILY, or, as he is more properly called, the King of the Two Sicilies, (the name of Sicily being common to both) is possessed of the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium Campania, Apulia, Magna Grecia, and the island of Sicily. They are bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north east, where Naples terminates on the ecclesiastical state. The air is hot, and its soil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines called *Vino Greco*, and *Lachrymæ Christi*, are excellent. The city of Naples its capital, which is extremely superb, and adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the most delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Vesuvius, which sometimes threaten the city with destruction, and the soil being pestered with insects and reptiles, some of which are venomous.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the ecclesiastics, the protestants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majesty presents to his holiness every year, a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquisition is established in Naples. The present revenues of that king, amount to above 750,000 l. sterling a year, but it is more than probable that, by the new established police pursued by the princes of the house of Bourbon, of abridging the influence and revenues of the clergy, his Neapolitan majesty's annual income will considerably exceed a million sterling. He has a numerous but poor nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, marquises, and other high-sounding titles; and his capital, by far the most populous in Italy, contains, at least, 300,000 inhabitants. Through every spot of this kingdom the traveller may be said to tread on Classic ground, and no country presents the eye with more beautiful prospects.

The island of SICILY, once the granary of the world for corn, still continues to supply Naples, and other parts, with that commodity, but its cultivation, and consequently fertility, is greatly diminished. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the same with those of Italy. Palermo, its capital, is said to contain 120,000 inhabitants, and both that city and Messina, carry on a brisk trade.

The island of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles west of Leghorn. Its capital, Cagliari, is an university, an archbishopric, and the seat of the

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viceroys. It is thought that his Sardinian majesty's revenues, from this island, does not exceed 5000 l. sterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fishery. Its air is bad from its marshes and morasses. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and in 1719 to the house of Savoy.

The island of **CORSICA** lies opposite the Genoese continent, between the gulph of Genoa and the island of Sardinia, and is best known by the noble stand which the inhabitants have made of late under general Paoli, for their liberty, against their Genoese tyrants, and afterwards the French arms, than from any advantages they enjoy, from nature or situation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, chestnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has also some cattle and horses, and is plentifully supplied, both by the sea and rivers, with fish. The inhabitants are said to amount to 120,000. Bastia, the capital, is a place of some strength, but other towns of the island, that were in possession of the malecontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

CAPEA, **ISCHIA**, and other islands, on the coasts of Naples and Italy, have nothing to distinguish them, but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful summer retreats for their owners.

I shall here mention the isle of **MALTA**, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian islands. It was formerly called Melita, and is situated in 35 deg. E. long. and 45 deg. N. lat. 60 miles south of cape Passaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. Its air is clear, but excessively hot; the whole island seems to be a white rock covered with a thin surface of earth, which is however amazingly productive of excellent fruit and vegetables, and garden stuff of all kinds. This island, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, and they are now known by the distinction of the knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chastity, but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have considerable possessions in the Roman-catholic countries on the continent, and are under the government of a grand-master, who is elected for life. They are considered as the bulwark of Christendom against the Turks on that side. They wear crosses of a particular form, and they never have degenerated

rated from the military glory of their predecessors. They are generally of noble families, and are ranked according to their nations. Not only their chief town Valetta, or Malta, and its harbour, but their whole island is so well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable by the infidels.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably first peopled from Greece, as we have mentioned in the Introduction, to which we refer the reader, for the ancient history of this country, which, for many ages, gave law to the then known world under the Romans. The successors of Charlemagne claimed, and for some time possessed the sovereignty of Italy, but their civil wars at home, soon gave an opportunity to their governors, to either assume or purchase the sovereignty of the several states over which they presided.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the courts of Maurienne, the ancestors of his present Sardinian majesty, whose father (as I have already observed) became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718*.

The Milanese, the fairest portion in Italy, went thro' several hands; the Viscontis were succeeded by the Galeazzos, and the Sforzas, but fell at last into the hands of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his son Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1706, by the imperialists. They were dispossessed of it in 1743; but by the emperor's cession of Naples and Sicily, to the present king of Spain, it returned to the house of Austria, who governs it by a viceroy.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the house of Austria, which now possesses it, the last duke dying without male issue; but Guastella was separated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The first duke of Parma was natural son to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy see in 1545, by pope Julius II. The descendants of the house of Farnese terminated in the late queen dowager of Spain, whose son, his present catholic majesty, obtained that duchy, and his nephew now holds it with the duchy of Placentia.

* Charles Emanuel III. king of Sardinia, was born in 1701, and ascended the throne in 1730. He hath issue,

1. Victor-Amadeus, duke of Savoy, born in 1726; and married in 1750, to Maria Antonetta, of Spain, born in 1729.

2. Benedict-Aurice, duke de Chablais, born 1741; and 3. Maria Theresia, 1743.

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The Venetians were formerly the most formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1194, they conquered Constantinople itself, and held it for some time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Asia. They were more than once brought to the brink of destruction, by the confederacies formed against them, among the other powers of Europe, especially by the league of Cambray, in 1509, but were as often saved by the disunion of the confederates. The discovery of a passage to India, by the cape of Good Hope, gave the first blow to their greatness, as it lost them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their most valuable possessions, on the continent, and so late as the year 1715, they lost the Morea.

The Genoese, for some time, disputed the empire of the Mediterranean sea, with the Venetians, but were seldom or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and sometimes subjected by the French and imperialists. Their doge or first magistrate is crowned king of Corsica, though it does not clearly appear by what title, and that island is now ceded to the French by the Genoese. The successful effort they made in driving the victorious Austrians out of their capital, during the war which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, has few parallels in history, and serves to shew the effects of despair under oppression. At present they are possessed of revenue, barely sufficient to preserve the appearance of a sovereign state.

The great duchy of Tuscany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies, to the year 1240, when the famous distinctions of the Gwelfs, who were the partizans of the pope, and the Gibellines, who were in the emperor's interest, took place. The popes then persuaded the imperial governors in Tuscany, to put themselves under the protection of the church, but the Florentines, in a short time, formed themselves into a free common-wealth, and bravely defended their liberties against both parties by turns. Faction at last shook their freedom, and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people seemed still to exist. The Medici, particularly Cosmo, who was deservedly called the Father of his Country, being in the secret, shared with the Venetians in the immense profits of the East-India trade, before the discoveries made by the Portugueze. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any sovereign prince in Europe,

enabled his successors to rise to sovereign power, and pope Pius V. gave one of his descendents Cosmo (the great patron of the arts) the title of great duke of Tuscany in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Galton de Medicis in 1737, without issue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his son-in-law, the duke of Lorraine, and late emperor, in lieu of the duchy of Lorraine, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his second son, brother to the present emperor, is now grand duke, and Tuscany assumes a new face. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade, and several ships of very considerable force are now stationed on the Tuscan coasts to prevent the depredation of the infidels.

No country has undergone greater vicissitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconstancy of the natives, which seems to be incorporated with their air. Christians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and by their connections with the Greeks established there, while the rest of Europe was plunged in monkish ignorance, a most respectable monarchy flourishing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the succession of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at last came into the possession of the French; and the house of Anjou, with some interruptions, and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards was so oppressive, that it gave rise to the famous revolt, headed by Massaniello, a young fisherman, without shoes or stockings. His success was so surprizing, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to abolish the oppressive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before these could be re-established perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1706, when the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took possession of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's son, to the possession of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houses of Austria and Bourbon, about the possession of Naples, and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies; this was followed by a very bloody campaign, but the farther effusion of blood was stopt by a peace between France and the emperor,

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to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at first demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples.

Upon his accession to the crown of Spain in 1759, it being found, by the inspection of physicians, and other trials, that his eldest son was by nature incapacitated for reigning, he resigned the crown of Naples to his third son, Ferdinand IV. who lately married an archduchess of Austria*.

The history of the Papacy is connected with that of Christendom itself. The most solid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the famous Matilda, countess of Tuscany, and heiress to the greatest part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. (who, before his accession in 1073, was so well known by the name of Hildebrand.) It is not to be expected, that I am here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other causes that operated to the aggrandizement of the papacy, previous to the reformation. Even since that æra the state of Europe has been such, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakness and bigotry of temporal princes, who seem now to be recovering from their religious delusions.

The papal power is evidently now at a low ebb. The order of Jesuits, who are not improperly called its Janissaries, has been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and is but just tolerated in other popish countries. The pope himself is treated by Roman-catholic princes, with very little more ceremony than is due to him as bishop of Rome, and possessed of a temporal principality. This humiliation, it is reasonable to believe, will terminate in a total separation from the holy see of all its foreign emoluments, which even, since the beginning of the present century, were immense, and to the reducing his holiness to the exercise of his ecclesiastical functions as first bishop of Christendom †.

* Ferdinand IV. king of the Two Sicilies, third son of the present king of Spain, was born in 1751, and married 1768, to the archduchess Maria-Caroline-Louisa, sister to the emperor of Germany, born in 1752.

† Francis Laurentius Gangaffelli, was elected pope in 1769, and took upon him the name of Clement XIV.

TURKEY.

The Grand Signior's Dominions are divided into

1. TURKEY IN EUROPE.
2. TURKEY IN ASIA.
3. TURKEY IN AFRICA.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------|--|
| Miles. | | Degrees. |
| Length 1000 } Breadth 900 } | between { | 17 and 40 east longitude. 36 and 49 north latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Russia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the north; by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellespont, and Archipelago, on the east; by the Mediterranean, on the south; by the same sea, and the Venetian and Austrian territories on the west.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|--|---|---|
| On the north coast of the Black Sea are the provinces of — — | Crim and Little Tartary, the ancient Taurica Chersonese | Precop Brachiseria Kaffa |
| | Budziac Tartary — Bessarabia — | Oczakow. Bender Belgorod |
| North of the Danube are the provinces of — — | Moldavia, olim Dacia — — | Jazy Chotzim Falczin |
| | Wallachia, another part of the ancient Dacia — | Tergovisc. |
| | Bulgaria, the east part of the ancient Myſia — | Widin Nicopoli Silitria Scopia |
| South of the Danube are | Servia, the west part of Myſia | Belgrade Semendria Niſſa |
| | Bosnia, part of the ancient Illyricum | Seraio. |

TURKEY IN EUROPE. 181

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|---|------------------------------------|--|
| On the Bosphorus and Hellepont | Romania, olim | Constantinople, N.L.41-E.L.29 |
| | Thrace | |
| South of mount Rhodope or Argentum, the north Part of the ancient Greece | Macedonia | Strymon Contessa |
| | Thessaly, now Janua | Salonichi |
| | Achaia and Bœotia, now Livadia | Athens Thebes Lepanto. |
| On the Adriatic sea or Gulph of Venice, the ancient Illyricum | Epirus | Chimara Butrinto |
| | Albania | Durazzo Dulcigno |
| | Dalmatia | Drino Narenza |
| | Ragusa republic | Ragusa. |
| | Corinthia | Corinth |
| | Argos | Argos Napoli de Romania |
| | Sparta | Lacedæmon, now Mistra, on the river Eurotus |
| In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the south division of Greece, are | Olympia, where the Games were held | Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus |
| | Arcadia | Modon Coron |
| | Elis | Patras Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Peneus. |

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS AND WATER.] Nature has lavished upon the inhabitants of Turkey, all her blessings in those four particulars. The soil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond description. The air is salubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unless when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence and uncleanness of the Turkish manner of living. The seasons are here regu-

lar, and pleasant, and have been celebrated from the remotest times of antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholesomeness of the water all over their dominions.

MOUNTAINS.] These are the most celebrated of any in the world, and at the same time often the most fruitful. Mount Athos lies on a peninsula, running into the Egean sea; the mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, separate Thessaly from Epirus. Parnassus, so famous for being consecrated to the Muses, is well known. Mount Haenus is likewise often mentioned by the poets; but most of the other mountains have changed their names, witness the mountains Suha, Witofka, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the most celebrated mountains above mentioned, have had modern names imposed upon them, by the Barbarians in their neighbourhood.

SEAS.] The Euxine or Black Sea; the Palus Macotis, or Sea of Afaph; the sea of Marmora, which separates Europe from Asia; the Archipelago; the Ionian sea, and the Levant, are so many evidences that Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Constantinople stands, of all other countries had the best claim to be mistress of the world.

STRAITS.] Those of the Hellespont and Bosphorus, are joined to the sea Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as antient history.

RIVERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neister, the Neiper, and the Don, are the best known rivers in this country, though many others have been celebrated by poets and historians.

LAKES.] These are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applause, either by the antients or moderns. The Lago di Sentari lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave, and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, so famous for its harpies, and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and Pencus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx, conceived by the antients to be the passage into hell, issues.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all sorts of mines, and its marbles are esteemed the finest in the world.

VEGETABLES AND PRODUCTIONS.] These are excellent all over the European Turkey, especially when assisted by the smallest degree of industry. Besides pot and garden herbs of almost every kind, this country produces in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon sweetness, excellent figs, almonds, olives and

and cotton. Besides these, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

ANIMALS.] The Thessalian, or Turkish horses, are excellent both for their beauty and service. The black cattle are large, especially in Greece. The goats are a most valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and flesh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Babadagi, furnish the best feathers for arrows for the Turkish and Tartan archers, and they sell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece, as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupedes, all over Turkey in Europe, but the Turks and Mahometans in general, are not very fond of animal food.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES } Almost every spot of
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } ground, every river,
and every fountain in Greece, presents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the Isthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre, where the Isthmean games were celebrated, are still visible. Athens, which contains at present above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful source of the most magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world, and to particularize them would be endless. I cannot, however, omit mentioning the temple of Minerva, thought by some to be the finest extant. The temple of the eight winds, and the lantern of Demosthenes, are still entire. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo, are still visible at Castri, on the south side of mount Parnassus, and the marble steps that descend to a pleasant running water, supposed to be the renowned Castalian spring, with the niches for statues in the rock, are still discernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is still a natural curiosity in Livadia, the old Bceotia.

CITIES.] Constantinople, the capital of this great empire, is situated on the European side of the Bosphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Constantine the Great, as a more inviting situation than Rome, for the seat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire, and having escaped the destructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greatest as well as the most beautiful city in Europe, and the only one during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the antient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the possession of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe, for the commodities of the East-Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the crusaders, and being then in the meridian of its glory, the Euro-

pean writers, in the ages of the crusades, speak of it with astonishment. "O what a vast city is Constantinople, (exclaims one when he first beheld it) and how beautiful! how many monasteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wonderful art! how many manufactures are there in the city amazing to behold! It would be astonishing to relate how it abounds with all good things, with gold, silver, and stuffs of various kinds; for every hour ships arrive in the port with all things necessary for the use of man." Constantinople is at this day one of the finest cities in the world by its situation and its port. It is frequently called *the Port*, by way of eminence. The prospect from it is noble. It abounds with antiquities. The mosque of St. Sophia, once a Christian church, is thought in some respects to exceed in grandeur and architecture St. Peter's at Rome. The city itself is built in a triangular form, with the Seraglio standing on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a prospect of the delightful coast of the Lesser Asia, which is not to be equalled. Both the magnitude and population of Constantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. The best authors think that it does not contain above 800,000 inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are said to be Greeks and Armenians, and the rest are Jews and Turks. Others suppose the inhabitants not to exceed 600,000.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military strength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks, these several heads depending on the same principles all over the empire, shall be mentioned under Turkey in Asia.

ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in EUROPE, being Part of Antient GREECE.

I Shall mention those islands chiefly for the use of such readers as are conversant with antient history, of which they make so distinguished a part.

NEGROPONT, the antient Eubœa, stretches from the south-east to the north-west, and on the eastern coast of Achaia or Livadia. It is 90 miles long, and 25 broad. Here the Turkish gallies lie. The tides on its coasts are irregular; and the island itself abounds in corn, wine, and fruit.

LEMNOS, lies on the north part of the Egean sea or Archipelago, and is almost a square of 25 miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches arise from its mineral earth, sometimes called *terra Lemna*

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or *sigillata*, because it is sealed up by the Turks, who receive therefrom a considerable revenue.

TENEDOS, is remarkable only for its lying opposite to old Troy, and its being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired and left the Trojans in a fatal security.

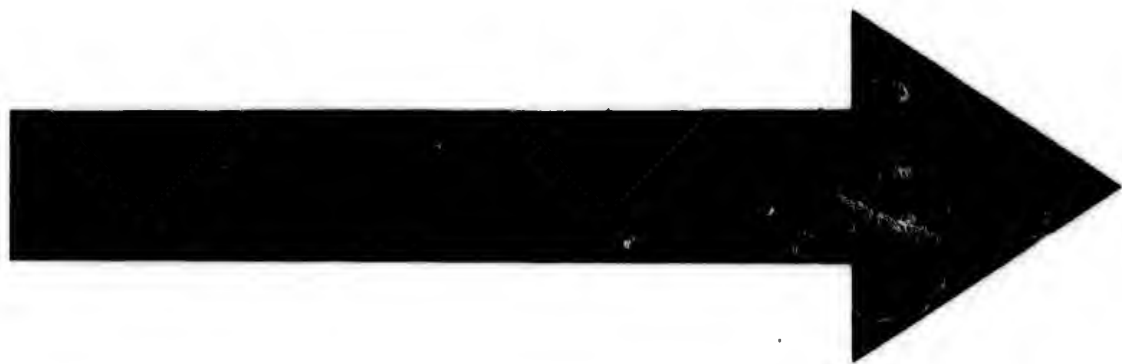
SCYROS, is about 60 miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains.

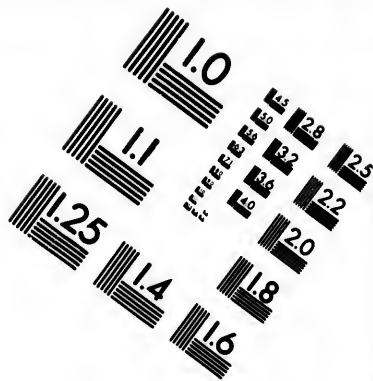
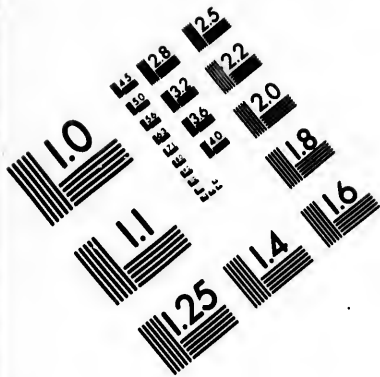
LESBOS, or MYTELINE, is about 60 miles long, and is famous for the number of philosophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality.

SCIO, or CHIOS, lies about 80 miles west of Smyrna, and is about 100 miles in circumference. This island, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and above 3,000 Latins. The inhabitants have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold and silver stuffs. The island likewise produces oil and silk, and the lentisk-tree, or mastic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almost all the other Greek islands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their persons have been the most perfect models of symmetry to painters and statuaries. They are not, however, renowned for their modesty or virtue; and even the Greek nuns are said to be lavish of their favours. Among the poets and historians said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and shew a little square house, which they call Homer's School. The Greeks pay a capitation tax for the exercise of their religion and laws; the rate of the highest rank is 10 crowns a-head, the second three, and the meanest two and a half, yearly.

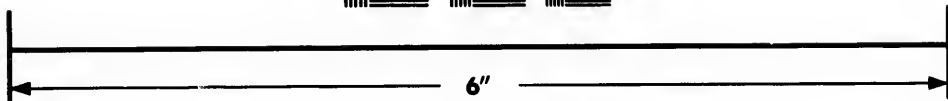
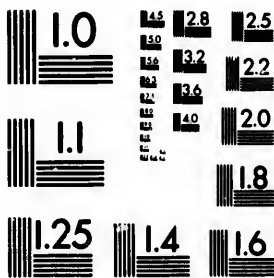
SAMOS, lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of the Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is 30 miles long and 15 broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Christians, who are well treated by the Turks, their masters. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request; and the island, besides, produces wool, which they sell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and silk. This island is supposed to have been the native country of Juno; and some travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the antient city Samos, are the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the south of Samos lies PATMOS, about 20 miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called
a rock





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a rock rather than an island. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the island, shew a cave where St. John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

The **CYCLADES** islands lie like a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which lies south of the islands Mycone and Tirse, and almost midway between the continents of Asia and Europe. Though Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. This island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

PAROS, lies between the islands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek islands, it contains the most striking and magnificent ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteness of its marble.

CERIGO, or **CYTHEREA**, lies south-east of the Morea, and is about 50 miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being the favourite residence of Venus.

SANTORIN, is one of the most southermost islands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Calista, and afterwards Thera. Though seemingly covered with pumice-stones, yet, through the industry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with some wheat. One third of the people are of the Latin church, and subject to a popish bishop. Near this island another arose of the same name, from the bottom of the sea, in 1707. At the time of its birth, there was an earthquake, attended with most dreadful lightnings and thunders and boilings of the sea for several days, so that when it arose out of the sea it was a mere volcano, but the burnings soon ceased. It is about 200 feet above the sea, and at the time of its first emerging it was about a mile broad and five miles in circumference, but it has since encreased. Several other islands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original, but the sea in their neighbourhood is so deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous island of **RHODES** is situated in the 28th degree of east longitude, and 36 deg. 20 minutes north latitude, about 20 miles south-west of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about 50 miles long, and 25 broad. This island abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life, but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The colossus of brass, which anciently stood at the mouth of

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TURKEY IN EUROPE. 187

its harbour, and was 50 fathom wide, was deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: one foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships passed between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The face of the colossus represented the sun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks in 1308, but lost it to them in 1522, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, is still renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, the seat of legislature to all Greece, and many other historical and political distinctions. It lies between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude, being 200 miles long and sixty broad, almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa. The famous Mount Ida stands in the middle of the island, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid stream. Some of the vallies of this island produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kinds. The siege of Candia, the capital of the island, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645, and its Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself till the latter end of September 1669, made, at last, an honourable capitulation. The siege cost the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

CYPRUS, lies in the Levant sea, about 30 miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is 150 miles long, and 70 broad, and lies at almost an equal distance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess; and during the time of the Crusades, was a rich flourishing kingdom, inhabited by Christians. Its wine, especially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the most palatable and richest of all that grows in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, and the see of a Greek archbishop. Famagusta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to a surprizing degree, though the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250 l. a year. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate

nerate from their ancestors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, the antient seat of pleasure and corruption, is one of the divisions of the island. Richard I. king of England, subdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Lusignan, king of Jerusalem, from whence it passed to the Venetians, who still hold that empty honour.

The islands in the Ionian sea are, SAPIENZA, STIVALI, ZANTE, CEPHALONIA, SANTA MAURA, CORFU, and others of smaller note, particularly ISOLA DEL COMPARE, which would not deserve mention, had it not been the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulysses.

Those islands in general are fruitful. Zante, belonging to the Venetians, has a populous capital of the same name, and is a place of considerable trade, especially in fruits. Corfu, which is the capital of that island, is a place of great strength, and belongs likewise to the Venetians, who concern themselves very little about the welfare or government of those and other islands, so that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character.

A S I A.

AS Asia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is also superior to them in the serenity of its air, the fertility of its soil, the deliciousness of its fruits, the fragrant and balsamic qualities of its plants, spices, and gums; the salubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems; the richness of its metals, and the fineness of its silks and cottons. It was in Asia, according to the sacred records, that the Allwise Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the first man and first woman, from whom the race of mankind was to spring. Asia became again the nursery of the world after the deluge, whence the descendants of Noah dispersed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Asia that God placed his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightned by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the oracles of truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accomplished by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his

his glorious gospel was carried with amazing rapidity into all the known nations by his disciples and followers. Here the first Christian churches were founded, and the Christian faith miraculously propagated and watered with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Asia that the first edifices were reared, and the first empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all these accounts, this quarter claims a superiority over the rest; but it must be owned, that a great change hath happened in that part of it called Turkey, which hath lost much of its antient splendor, and from the most populous and best cultivated spot in Asia, is become a wild uncultivated desert. The other parts of Asia continue much in their former condition, the soil being as remarkable for its fertility, as most of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in some measure heightened by custom and education; and the symptoms of it are more or less visible, as the several nations are seated nearer or farther from the north. Hence the Tartars, who live near the same latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, strong, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is wanting in the robust frame of their bodies among the Chinese, Mogul-Indians, and all the inhabitants of the more southern regions, is in a great measure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanship, which our most skilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vast extent of territory was successively governed in antient times by the Assyrians, the Medes, the Persians, and the Greeks; but the immense regions of India and China were little known to Alexander or the conquerors of the antient world. Upon the decline of those empires, great part of Asia submitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the successors of Mahomet, or, as they were usually called, Saracens, founded in Asia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman when in its height of power. The Saracen greatness ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every side, took possession of the middle regions of Asia, which they still enjoy. Besides the countries possessed by the Turks and Russians, Asia contains at present three powerful empires, the Chinese, the Mogul, and the Persian, upon which the lesser kingdoms and sovereignties of Asia generally depend. The prevailing form of government in this division of the globe is absolute monarchy. If any of them can be said to enjoy some share of liberty, it

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is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Asiatic nations, when the Dutch first came among them, could not conceive how it was possible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a despotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Persia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profess Mahometism. The Persian and Indian Mahometans are of the sect of Hali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their law-giver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Asiatic islands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Asia. Christianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apostles and primitive fathers, suffered an almost total eclipse by the conquests of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks. Incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and sufferings of popish missionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the most distant regions, and among the grossest idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of success, owing, in a great measure, to the avarice and profligacy of the Europeans, who resort thither in search of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages spoken in Asia are, the modern Greek, the Turkish, the Russian, the Tartarian, the Persian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chinese, and the Japanese. The European languages are also spoken upon the coasts of India and China.

The continent of Asia is situated between 25 and 180 degrees of east longitude, and between the equator and 80 degrees of north latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanel on the west, to the eastern shore of Tartary; and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the most southern part of Malacca, to the most northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the west it is separated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the sea of Marmora, the Bosphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the east, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South-Sea, which separates it from America; and on the south, by the Indian Ocean; so that it is almost surrounded by the sea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follow.

Nations.

Russian
Chinese
Mogul
Independent

China

Moguls

India

Persia

Part of

Arabia

Syria

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TURKEY IN ASIA.

| Nations. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief cities. | Dist. & bearing from London. | Diff. of time from London. | Religions. |
|-------------------------|--|----------|-----------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|--|
| Russian | The bounds of these parts are unlimited, each power pushing on his conquests as far as he can. | | Tobolskoi | 2160 N. E. | 4 10 bef. | Christ. & Pag. |
| Chinese | | | Chynian | 4480 N. E. | 8 4 bef. | Pagans |
| Nepalese | | | Tibet | 3780 E. | 5 40 bef. | Pagans |
| Independent | | | Samercand | 2800 E. | 4 36 bef. | Pagans |
| China | | | 1440 | 1000 | Pekin | 4320 S. E. |
| Moguls | 2000 | 1500 | Delly | 3720 S. E. | 5 16 bef. | Mah. & Pag. |
| India | 2000 | 1000 | Siam or Pegu | 5020 S. E. | 6 44 bef. | Pagans |
| Persia | 1300 | 1100 | Ispahan | 2460 S. E. | 3 20 bef. | Mahometans |
| Part of Arabia | 1300 | 1200 | Mecca | 2540 S. E. | 2 52 bef. | Mahometans |
| Syria | 270 | 150 | Aleppo | 1860 S. E. | 2 30 bef. | Christ. & Mah. |
| Holy Land | 210 | 90 | Jerusalem | 1920 S. E. | 2 24 bef. | Christ. & Mah. |
| Natolia | 750 | 300 | Rurfa or Smyrna | 1440 S. E. | 1 48 bef. | Mahometans |
| Diarbeck or Mesopotamia | 560 | 310 | Bagdad | 2160 S. E. | 2 56 bef. | } Mahometans, with some few Christians |
| Turcomania | 360 | 300 | Ezerum | 1860 S. E. | 2 44 bef. | |
| Georgia | *** | *** | Tchis | 1920 E. | 3 10 bef. | |

the islands of Asia (except Cyprus, already described, in the Levant, belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eastern Ocean, and the Indian Seas, of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have settlements, are

| Islands. | Towns. | Trade with or belong to. |
|---|---------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Japanese isles | Jeddo | Dutch |
| Ladrones | Guam | Spain |
| Mofa | Tai-cuan-fou | China |
| Philippines | Manilla | Spain |
| Molucca, or Clove isles, | Victoria Fort | Dutch |
| Banda, or Nutmeg isles, | Lantor | Dutch |
| Amboyna | Amboyna | Dutch |
| Java, &c. { surrounding the Molucca and Banda isles | Macassar | Dutch |
| | Gilolo | Dutch |
| Sunda isles { Borneo | Borneo, Caytongee | All nations |
| | Achen, Bencoolen | English and Dutch |
| | Batavia, Bantam | Dutch |
| Andaman and Nicobar isles | Andaman, Nicobar | All nations |
| Ceylon | Candy | Dutch |
| Maldives | Caridon | All nations |
| Bombay | Bombay | English |
| Kurile isles, and those in the sea of the Russians, | Kampfschatza, lately discovered | Russia. |

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees.

Length 1000 } between { 27 and 46 east longitude.
 Breadth 800 } { 28 and 45 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDDED by the Black Sea and Circassia, on the north; by Persia, on the east; by Arabia and the Levant Sea, on the south; and by

by the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, which separate it from Europe, on the west.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The eastern provinces are | 1. Eyraco Arabic or Chaldea — | Boffora and Bagdat. |
| | 2. Diarbec or Mesopotamia — | Diarbec, Orfa, and Moufoul. |
| | 3. Curdistan or Assyria — | Nineveh and Betlis. |
| | 4. Turcomania or Armenia — | Erzerum and Van. |
| | 5. Georgia, including Mengrelia and Imeretta, and part of Circassia — | Amarchia and Gonie. |
| Natolia, or the Lesser Asia, on the west, | 1. Natolia Proper — | Burfa, Nici, Smyrna, and Ephesus. |
| | 2. Amasia — | Amasia, Trapezond, and Sinope. |
| | 3. Aladulia — | Ajazzo and Marat. |
| | 4. Caramania — | Satalia and Teraffo. |
| East of the Levant Sea, | Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land | Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, and Jerusalem. |

MOUNTAINS.] These are famous in sacred as well as prophane writings. The most remarkable are, Olympus; Taurus and Anti-taurus; Caucasus and Arrarat; Lebanon; and Hermon.

RIVERS.] The same may be observed of the rivers, which are the Euphrates; Tigris; Orantes; Meander; Sarabat; Kara; and, Jordan.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Though both are delightful in the utmost degree, and naturally salubrious to the human constitution, yet such is the equality with which the Author of nature has dispensed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, is often visited by the plague; a frightful scourge of mankind, wherever it takes place, but here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in predestination, which prevents them from using precaution to defend themselves against this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contains the most fertile provinces of Asia, I need scarcely inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abundance,

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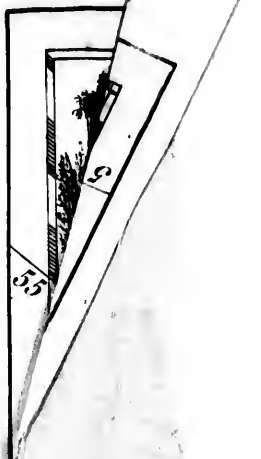
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*Drawn from the latest
and best Authorities.*
By Tho: Kitchin.

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dance, notwithstanding the indolence of its owners. Raw silk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every species, coffee, myrrh, frankincense, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almost without culture, which is practised chiefly by Greek and Armenian Christians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in those provinces, are highly delicious, and in such plenty, that they cost the inhabitants a mere trifle, and it is said, in some places nothing. Their asparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed those of other countries in largeness. In short, nature has brought all her productions here to the highest perfection.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS } The same may be said of their
 BY SEA AND LAND. } animals. The breed of the Turkish and Arabian horses, the latter especially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have considerably improved that of the English. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to those countries, but they contain all that are necessary for the use of mankind. Camels are here in much request, from their strength, their agility, and, above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their numerous herds of goats furnish the materials for their camblets. Their kids and sheep are exquisite eating, and are said to surpass, in flavour and taste, those of Europe; but their other butchers meat, beef particularly, is not so fine.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in vast perfection; their ostriches are well known by their tallness, stupidity, and heaviness. The Roman epicures prized no fish except lampreys, mullets, and oysters, but those that were found in Asia.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richest kingdoms and provinces of Europe; and its medicinal springs and baths exceed those of any in the known world.

OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, }
 MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND } THE population of
 DIVERSIONS. } this great country
 is by no means equal
 either to its extent or fertility, nor have the best geographers been able to ascertain it; because of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not so great as it was before the Christian æra, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to various causes, and above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy

enemy to population, as may be evinced from many reasons, and particularly because the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practised, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithstanding the rigid subjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cause of depopulation. The Turkish emperor, however, has more subjects than any two European princes.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robust men: when young their complexions are fair, and their faces handsome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are commonly handsome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanour, the Turks are rather hypochondriac, grave, sedate, and passive; but when agitated by passion, furious, raging, ungovernable; big with dissimulation, jealous, suspicious, and vindictive beyond conception: in matters of religion, tenacious, superstitious, and morose. Though incapable of much benevolence, or even humanity with regard to Jews, Christians, or any who differ from them in religious matters, they are not devoid of social affections for those of their own religion. But interest is their supreme good, and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, consanguinity, or friendship, are speedily dissolved. The morals of the Asiatic Turks are far preferable to those of the European. They are hospitable to strangers; and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among their great men. They are likewise said to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and public spirit is most conspicuous in their building caravanseras or places of entertainment on roads that are destitute of accommodations, for the refreshment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the same laudable view, they search out the best springs, and dig wells, which in those countries is a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks sit cross-legged upon mats, not only at their meals but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from opium, are simple and confined, seldom reaching without the walls of their own houses, where they sit conversing with their women, drinking coffee, smoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curiosity to be informed of the state of their own, or any other country. If a visier, bashaw, or other officer, is turned out, or strangled, they say no more on the occasion, than that there will be a new visier or governor, seldom enquiring into the reason of the disgrace of the former minister. They are perfect strangers to wit and agreeable conversation. They have few printed books, and seldom read any other than the Alcoran, and the

comments

comments upon it. Nothing is negociated in Turkey without presents ; and here justice may be bought and sold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and they sup at five in the winter and six in the summer, and this is their principal meal. Among the great people, their dishes are served up one by one ; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to use gold or silver spoons. Their victuals are always high seasoned. Rice is the common food of the lower sort, sometimes it is boiled up with gravy ; but their chief dish is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the soup is high seasoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, sherbet, and coffee ; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them sensations resembling those of intoxication. Guests of high rank sometimes have their beards perfumed by a female slave of the family. They are temperate and sober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the use of wine ; though in private many of them indulge themselves in the use of strong liquors. Their common salutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breast. They sleep, in linen waistcoats and drawers, upon mattresses, and cover themselves with a quilt. Few or none of the considerable inhabitants of this vast empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diversion. The most religious among them find, however, sufficient exercise when they conform themselves to the frequent oblations, prayers, and rites prescribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diversions consist in shooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors ; but this is often done for political purposes, that they may know the strength of their dependants. Within doors, the chess or draught-board are their usual amusements ; and if they play at chance games, they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Alcoran.

DRESS.] The men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they sleep. Their shirts are without collar or wristband, and over them they throw a long vest, which they tie with a sash, and over the vest they wear a loose gown somewhat shorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their stockings ; and instead of shoes they wear slippers, which they put off

when they enter a temple or house. They suffer no Christians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dress of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear stiffened caps upon their heads with horns something like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad they are so muffled up as not to be known by their nearest relations. Such of the women as are virtuous make no use of paint to heighten their beauty, or to disguise their complexion, but they often tinge their hands and feet with henna, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make use of the same expedient to colour their beards.

MARRIAGES.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negotiated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a sum of money, a licence is taken out from the cadi, or proper magistrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity, and the money is generally employed in furnishing the house of the young couple. A man may marry as many women as he can maintain, but under the restriction of a censorial power, to prevent too great a plurality of wives. Besides their wives, the wealthy Turks keep a kind of Seraglio of women; but all these indulgencies are sometimes insufficient to gratify their unnatural desires.

FUNERALS.] The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpse is attended by the relations, chanting passages from the Koran; and after being deposited in a mosque (for so they call their temples) they are buried in a field, by the iman or priest, who pronounces a funeral sermon at the time of the interment. The male relations express their sorrow by alms and prayers; the women, by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and in mourning for a husband, they wear a particular head-dress, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

RELIGION.] The established religion is that of the Mahometan, so called from Mahomet, the author of it; some account of which the reader will find in the following history of Arabia, the native country of that impostor. The Turks profess that of the sect of Omar; but these are split into as many sectaries as their neighbours the Christians. There is no ordination among their clergy, any person may be a priest, that pleases to take the habit and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleases. Their chief priest or mufti seems to have great power in the state.

ECCLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS } The Turkish govern-
OF CHRISTIANS. } ment having formed
these into part of its finances, they are tolerated where they

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are most profitable; but the hardships imposed upon the Greek church are such, as must always dispose that people to favour any revolution of government. Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an ecclesiastical authority over their votaries. The same may be said of the Nestorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege has its archbishop or bishop.

LANGUAGE.] The radical languages of this empire are the Sclavonian, which seems to have been the mother tongue of the ancient Turks; the Greek modernized, but still bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic, and the Syriac, a dialect of which is still spoken. A specimen of the modern Greek follows in their Paternoster:

Pater hemas, opios isf ces tos ouranous: bagia sbito to onoma sou: na erti be basilia sou: to tholema sou na genetez itzon en te ge, os is ton ouranon: to ptfomi hemas dozo hemas semoren: kæ si choraf: hemes ta crimata bemon itzone, kæ hemas sichorasomen ekinous opou: mäs adikounkæ men ternes hemais is to pirafino, alla sefon hemas apo to kaxo. Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] I know of none among the Turks, who profess a sovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and sciences, produces at present, besides Turks, numerous bands of Christian bishops, priests, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themselves, and are divided into various absurd sects of what they call Christianity.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } These are so various,
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } that they have furnished matter for many voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. Those countries contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture, and sculpture, and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have suffered from the Europeans, seem to have diminished their number. They are more or less perfect, according to the air, soil, or climate, in which they stand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the finest temples are converted into Turkish mosques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than those which remain in ruins. Amidst such a plenitude of curiosities, all that can be done here is to select some of the most striking; and I shall begin with Balbec and Palmyra, which form the pride of all antiquity.

Balbec is situated on a rising plain, between Tripoli in Syria and Damascus, and is the Heliopolis of Cælo Syria. Its

remains of antiquity display, according to the best judges, the boldest plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpressibly superb, though disfigured by two Turkish towers. The hexagonal court behind it, is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. Their walls were adorned with Corinthian pilasters and statues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the same taste and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads, is now so ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, supported by nine lofty columns, each consisting of three pieces joined together, by iron pins, without cement. Some of those pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter, and the sordid Turks are daily at work to destroy the columns, for the sake of the iron. A small temple is still standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto relief, expressing the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors, and part of the antient mythology. To the west of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but disfigured with Turkish mosques and houses. The other parts of this antient city are proportionably beautiful and stupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of those immense buildings. The inhabitants of Asia ascribe them to Solomon, but some make them so modern, as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras, and though that prince, and his successors, may have rebuilt some part of them, yet the boldness of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the stupendous execution of the whole, seem to fix their foundation to a period before the Christian æra, but without mounting to the times of the Jews, or the Phenicians, who probably knew little of the Greek stile, in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at present a little city, encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the antient ruins. A free-stone quarry, in the neighbourhood, furnished the stones for the body of the temple, and one of the stones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep, and reduced to our measure is 1135 tons. A coarse white marble quarry, at a greater distance, furnished the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or as it was called by the antients, Tadmor in the Desert, is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petraea, about 33 deg. N. lat. and 200 miles to the south-east of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain lined as it were with

the remains of antiquity, and opening all at once, the eye is presented with the most striking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins, but the access to it is through a vast number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, which have been drawn, and published by Mr. Wood, who, with his friends, paid it a visit some years ago, purposely to preserve some remembrance of such a curiosity. As those drawings or copies from them are now common, we must refer the reader to them, especially as he can form no very adequate ideas of the ruins, from the printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonnade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticos, peristyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest stile, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but so dispersed and disjointed, that it is impossible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. Those striking ruins are contrasted by the miserable huts of the wild Arabs, who reside in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that so superb a city, formerly 10 miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of tracts of barren uninhabitable sands. Nothing however is more certain, than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eastern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the western nations, for the merchandizes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered situation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which have turned the most fertile tracts into barren deserts. The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon, and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Anthony, and its most superb buildings, are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus.

Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly cared for by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for some time, and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and among others, the excellent Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of Zenobia's treasures in repairing the temple of the Sun,

the majestic ruins of which have been mentioned. This, it must be acknowledged, is but a very lame account of that celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene inscriptions reach above the Christian æra, though there can be no doubt that the city itself is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore it to its ancient splendor, but without effect, for it dwindled by degrees to its present wretched state. It has been observed very justly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to those of Balbec.

Nothing can be more futile, than the boasted antiquities shewn by the Greek and Armenian priests in and near Jerusalem, which is well known to have been so often razed to the ground, and rebuilt anew, that no scene of our Saviour's life and sufferings, can be ascertained, and yet those ecclesiastics subsist by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every spot mentioned in the Old and New Testament. They are, it is true, under severe contributions to the Turks, but the trade still goes on though much diminished in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, said to be built by Helena, mother to Constantine the Great, is still standing, and of tolerable good architecture, but its different divisions, and the dispositions made round it, are chiefly calculated to support the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches, built by the same lady, are found in Palestine; but the country is so altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the most despicable of any in Asia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any vestiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon.

Mecca and Medina are curiosities only through the superstition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houses or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a sorry appearance, though erected on the spot where the great prophet is said to have been born. The same may be said of the mosque at Medina, where that impostor was buried; so that the vast sums spent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in visiting those places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uses. I shall not amuse the reader with any accounts of the spot which is said to have formed Paradise, and to have been situated between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where there are some tracts which undoubtedly deserve that name. The different ruins, some of them inexpressibly magnificent, that are to be found in those immense regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; so great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for these thousand years past. It is indeed easy to pronounce whether the stile of their buildings are

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are Greek, Roman, or Saracen, but all other information must come from their inscriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Ismir) contains many valuable antiquities, but it cannot be imagined that a learned man could devote his whole life to explain them. The same may be said of Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in antiquity, and now known only by geographical observations. The seat of old Troy cannot be distinguished by the smallest vestige, and is known only by its lying opposite to the isle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook, which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble built in honour of Augustus Cæsar, at Milasso in Caria, and a few structures of the same kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are still entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, have suffered very little from time or barbarism, and some travellers think that they discern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Ephesus.

PROVINCES, CHIEF CITIES, } These are very numerous,
 MOSQUES, AND OTHER } and at the same time very
 BUILDINGS. } insignificant, because they
 have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their
 ancient grandeur. Scanderoon stands upon the site of Old
 Alexandria, but it is now almost depopulated. Superb re-
 mains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo,
 however, preserves a respectable rank among the cities of the
 Asiatic Turkey. It is still the capital of Syria, and is superior
 in its buildings and conveniencies to most of the Turkish
 cities. Its houses, as usual in the East, consist of a large
 court, with a dead wall to the street, an arcade or piazza
 running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant foun-
 tain of the same in the middle. Aleppo, and its suburbs, are
 seven miles in compass, and contain 235,000 inhabitants, of
 whom 30,000 are Christians, and 5000 are Jews. It is fur-
 nished with most of the conveniencies of life, excepting good
 water, within the walls, and even that is supplied by an aque-
 duct, said to have been erected by the empress Helena. Their
 gardens are pleasant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig,
 and pistachio trees, but the country round is rough and bar-
 ren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and transact
 their business in caravanferas, or large square buildings, con-
 taining their ware-houses, lodging-rooms, and counting-
 houses. This city abounds in neat, and some of them mag-
 nificent mosques, public bagnios, which are very refreshing,
 and bazars, or market-places, which are formed into long,
 narrow, covered streets, with little shops, as in other parts of
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the East. Their coffee is excellent, and considered by the Turks as a high luxury, and their sweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater splendor and safety than in any other city of the Turkish empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. The English, French, and Dutch, have consuls, who are much respected, and appear abroad, the English especially, with marks of distinction.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to sleep in the open air, here and over all Arabia, and many other parts of the East; for which reason their houses are flat on the top. This practice accounts for the early acquaintance those nations had with astronomy, and the motions of the heavenly bodies, and explains some parts of the holy scripture. As the Turks are very uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of the other Turkish cities.

Bagdat, built upon the Tygris, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was once the metropolis of the califate, under the Saracens, the most powerful monarchy in the earth.

Bagdat retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is rudely fortified, but the conveniency of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and western caravans.

Antient Assyria is now called the Turkish Curdistan, tho' part of it is subject to the Persians. The capital is Curdistan; the ancient Niniveh being now a heap of ruins. Curdistan is said to be for the most part cut out of a mountain, and is the residence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg. Orfa, formerly Edessa, is the capital of the fine province of Mesopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly supported by a manufacture of Turkey leather.

Georgia, or Gurgistan, though subject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Christians, a brave, warlike race of men, and now at war with the Mahometans. Their capital, Teflis, is a handsome city, and makes a fine appearance, its inhabitants being about 30,000. The Georgians in general are by some travellers said to be the handsomest people in the world; and some think that they early received the practice of inoculation for the small-pox. They make no scruple of selling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many distinguishing liberties and privileges.

The ancient cities of Damascus, Tyre, and Sidon, still retain part of their former trade. Damascus is called Sham, and

and the approach to it by the river is inexpressibly beautiful. It contains a fine mosque, which was formerly a Christian church. It still is famous for its steel works, such as sword blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is said to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants still manufacture those beautiful silks, called Damasks from their city, and carry on a considerable traffic in raw and worked silk; rose-water, extracted from the famous damask roses, fruits and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is still beautiful, especially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, which likewise lies within the ancient Phœnicia, has still some trade, and a tolerable harbour. Tyre, now called Sur, about 20 miles distant from Sidon, so famous formerly for its rich dye, is now only inhabited by a few miserable fishermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur.

Natolia, or Asia Minor, comprehending the antient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycoania, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amasia; all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman history, are now, through the Turkish indolence and tyranny, either forsaken, or a theatre of ruins. The sites of antient cities are still discernible, and so luxurious is nature in those countries, that in many places she triumphs over her forlorn condition. The selfish Turks cultivate no more land than maintain themselves, and their gardens and summer-houses fill up the circuit of their most flourishing cities. The most judicious travellers, upon an attentive survey of those countries, fully vindicate all that has been said by sacred and profane writers of their beauty, strength, fertility, and population. Even Palestine and Judæa, the most despicable at present of all those countries, lies buried within the luxuries of its own soil. The Turks seem particularly fond of representing it in the most dreadful colours, and have formed a thousand falsehoods concerning it, which being artfully propagated by some among ourselves, have imposed upon weak Christians*. Whether those

* The late reverend Dr. Shaw, professor of Greek at Oxford, who seems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the soundest philosophy, to make the most just observations, says, that was the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very best parts of Syria and Phœnicia, because the soil is generally much richer, and, every thing considered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenness, says he, of which some authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulness of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who possess it, and the perpetual discords and depredations of the petty princes who share this fine country.

those countries could ever be restored to their ancient grandeur, trade, and population, may be a question with some; but I apprehend that it would now be impossible (let the Turkish government be ever so beneficent) to divert commerce (without which, all attempts of that kind must be feeble) from its European channels. There can, however, be no question, that a government less brutal and bigotted than that of the Turks, might make the natives a powerful as well as a happy people within themselves. The misfortune is, that the Greeks, Armenians, and other sects of Christians there, partake but too much of the Turkish stupidity. Tho' they are not suffered to wear white turbans, or to ride on horseback, and are subjected to a thousand indignities and miseries, and are even, in many places, far more numerous than their oppressors, yet so abject is their spirit, that they make no efforts for their own deliverance, and they are contented under all their mortifications. If they are less indolent than their oppressors, it is because they must otherwise starve; and they dare not enjoy even the property they acquire, lest it should be discovered to their tyrants, who would consider it as their own.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] These objects are little attended to in the Turkish dominions. The nature of their government destroys that happy security which is the mother of arts, industry, and commerce; and such is the debasement of the human mind when borne down by tyranny and oppression, that all the great advantages of commerce which nature has as it were thrown under the feet of the inhabitants by their situation, are here totally neglected. The advantages of Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all those countries which carried on the commerce of the ancient world, are overlooked. They command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the southern ocean, and presents them with all the riches of the Indies. Whoever looks on a map of Turkey, must admire the situation of their capital, upon a narrow strait that separates Europe from Asia, and communicates on the south with the Mediterranean sea, thereby opening a passage to all the European nations as well as the coast of Africa. The same strait, communicating northwards with the Black Sea, opens a passage, by means of the

Danube

Indeed the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Palestine, says Mr. Wood, we have often seen the husbandman sowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the seed." And, after all, whoever sows is uncertain whether he shall ever reap the harvest.

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Danube and other great rivers, into the interior parts of Germany, Poland, and Russia.

In this extensive empire, where all the commodities necessary for the largest plan of industry and commerce are produced, the Turks content themselves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and soap. The most valuable of their commodities, such as silk, a variety of drugs, and dying stuffs, they generally export without giving them much additional value from their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is extremely small, and managed entirely by Jews and Armenians. In their traffic with Europe the Turks are altogether passive. The English, French, Dutch, and other Europeans, resort hither with their commodities, and bring back those of Turkey in the same bottoms. They seldom attempt any distant voyages, and are possessed only of a few coasting vessels in the Asiatic Turkey; their chief royal navy lying on the side of Europe. The inattention of the Turks to objects of commerce is perhaps the best security to their government. The balance of power established among the princes of Europe, and their jealousies of one another, secures to the infidels the possession of countries, which in the hands of the Russians, or any active state, might endanger the commerce of their neighbours, especially their trade with India.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Turkish government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is shocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. But from the late accounts of Sir James Potter, who resided at the Porte, in quality of ambassador from his Britannic majesty, it appears that the rigours of that despotic government are considerably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this empire there is no hereditary succession to property, the rights of individuals may be rendered fixed and secure, by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconsiderable expence. Even Jews and Christians may in this manner secure the enjoyment of their lands to the latest posterity; and so sacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there is no instance of an attempt on the side of the prince to trespass or reverse it. Neither does the observance of this institution altogether depend on the superstition of the sultan; he knows that any attempt to violate it, would shake the foundations of his throne, which is solely supported by the laws of religion. Were he to trespass these laws, he becomes an infidel, and ceases to be the lawful sovereign. The same observation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was designed by Mahomet, both as a political code, and as a religious

gious system. The laws there enacted, having all the force of religious prejudices to support them, are inviolable; and by them the civil rights of the Mahometans are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explain the law where it is obscure, or extend and compleat what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the first institution of the prophet; and no member of the society, however powerful, can transgress them without censure, or violate them without punishment.

The Asiatic Turks, or rather subjects of the Turkish empire, who hold their possessions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their serving in the field with a particular number of men, think themselves, while they perform that agreement, almost independent of his majesty, who seldom calls for the head of the estate of a subject, who is not an immediate servant of the court. The most unhappy subjects of the Turkish government, are those who approach the highest dignities of state, and whose fortunes are constantly exposed to sudden alterations, and depend on the breath of their master. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the vizir, or prime minister; the chiaya, second in power to the vizir; the reis effendi, or secretary of state, are the most considerable. These, as well as the musti, or high priest, the bashaws, or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raised by their application and assiduity, from the meanest stations in life, and are often the children of Tartar, or Christian slaves taken in war. Tutored in the school of adversity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thousand difficulties and dangers, these men are generally as distinguished for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They possess all the dissimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in a humble rank, and they have a farther reason for plundering the people, because they are uncertain how long they may possess the dignities to which they are arrived. The administration of justice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded on very equitable principles.

REVENUES.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of this empire must be immense. The revenues arise from the customs, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Christians, and other subjects, not of the Mahometani religion. Another branch of the revenue arises from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws.

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All these, however, are trifling, when compared with the vast sums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of state, under the name of presents. These harpies, to indemnify themselves, as we have already observed, exercise every species of oppression that their avarice can suggest, till becoming wealthy from the vitals of the countries they are sent to govern, their riches frequently give rise to a pretended suspicion of disloyalty or misconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is seldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accusers; but, without giving him the least opportunity of making a defence, an officer is dispatched, with an imperial decree, to take off his head. The unhappy *bassia* receives it with the highest respect, putting it on his head, and after he has read it, says, *the will of God and the emperor be done*, or some such expression, testifying his entire resignation to the will of his prince. Then he takes the silken cord, which the officer has ready in his bosom, and having tied it about his own neck, and said a short prayer, the officer's servants throw him on the floor, and, drawing the cord taut, soon dispatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

FORCES.] The militia of the Turkish empire is of two sorts; the first have certain lands appointed for their maintenance, and the other is paid out of the treasury. Those that have certain lands, amount to about 268,000 troopers, effective men. Besides these, there are also certain auxiliary forces raised by the tributary countries of this empire; as the Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, and Georgians, who are commanded by their respective princes. The *Kan* of the Crim Tartars is obliged to furnish 100,000 men, and to serve in person, when the grand signior takes the field. In every war, besides the above forces, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of succeeding the officers. These adventurers do not only promise themselves an estate if they survive, but are taught, that if they die in a war against the Christians, they shall go immediately to paradise. The forces, which receive their pay, from the treasury, are called the *Spahis*, or horse-guards, and are in number about 12,000; and the *janizaries*, or foot-guards, who are esteemed the best soldiers in the Turkish armies, and on them they principally depend in an engagement. These amount to about 25,000 men, who are quartered in and near Constantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded so far sometimes as to depose the sultan. They are educated in the *seraglio*, and trained

up to the exercise of arms from their infancy ; and there are not less than 100,000 foot soldiers, scattered over every province of the empire, who procure themselves to be registered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of janizaries, which are very great, being subject to no jurisdiction, but that of their aga, or chief commander.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The emperor's titles are swelled with all the pomp of eastern magnificence. He is stiled by his subjects, *the Shadow of God, a God on Earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, disposer of all earthly Crowns, &c.* The grand signior's arms are, vert, a crescent argent, crested with a turbant, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donc totum impleat orbem.*

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths, who are designed for the state, the army, or the navy ; but they are seldom preferred till they are about 40 years of age, and they rise by their merit. They are generally the children of Christian parents, either taken in war, purchased, or presents from the viceroys and governors of distant provinces, the most beautiful, well made, and sprightly children, that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the signior, before they are sent to the colleges, or seminaries, where they are educated for employments, according to their genius or abilities.

The ladies of the seraglio, are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly sent as presents from the provinces, and the Greek islands, most of them the children of Christian parents. On their admission they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. These ladies are scarce ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand signior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are inclosed with lattices; and, when they go by land, they are put into close chariots, and signals are made at certain distances, to give notice that none approach the roads, through which they march. Among the emperor's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converse by signs with great quickness, and some dwarfs who are exhibited for the diversion of his majesty.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.] It has been the fate of the more southern and fertile parts of Asia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vast country, known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of these people, called Turks or Turco-

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mans, which name signifies Wanderers, extended its conquests under various leaders, and during several centuries, from the shore of the Caspian, to the straits of the Dardanelles. Being long resident, in the capacity of body guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time, as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief residence was in the neighbourhood of mount Caucasus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the sultans of Persia, they seized that kingdom, and spread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometanism, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were sometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declension of the califate or empire of the Saracens, they made themselves masters of Palestine; and the visiting the Holy City of Jerusalem, being then part of the Christian exercises, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under such heavy contributions, and exercised such horrible cruelties upon the Christian inhabitants of the country, as gave rise to the famous Crusades, which we have mentioned more fully in the Introduction.

It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progress of the Christians than the Turks; and though after oceans of blood were spilt, a Christian kingdom was erected at Jerusalem under Godfrey of Bouillon, neither he nor his successors were possessed of any real power for maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1347, had extended their dominions on every side, and possessed themselves under Othman, of some of the finest provinces in Asia, of Nice, and Prusa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, first embodied them into a nation; hence they took the name of Othmans from that leader, the appellation of Turks, as it signifies in the original, wanderers, or banished men, being considered by them as a term of reproach. Othman was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes that are mentioned in history. About the year 1357, they passed the Hellespont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath settled the seat of his empire at Adrianople. Such were their conquests, that Bajazet I, after defeating the Greek emperor Sigismond, laid siege to Constantinople, in hopes of subjecting all the Greek empire. His greatness and insolence provoked Tamerlane, who was just then returned from his eastern conquests, to declare war against him. A decisive battle was fought between those

rival conquerors, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates, in which Bajazet's army was cut in pieces, and he himself taken prisoner. The successors of Tamerlane, by declaring war against one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians and Hungarians, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long siege, Mahomet II. took Constantinople in 1453. Thus, after an existence of ten centuries, from its first commencement under Constantine the Great, ended the Greek empire; an event which had been long foreseen, and was owing to many causes; the chief was the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themselves, their courts and families; the dislike their subjects had to the popes, and the western church, one of their patriarchs declaring publickly to a Romish legate, "that he would rather see a turban, than the pope's tiara, upon the great altar of Constantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conquests, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to subjection, the remains of the antient Greeks still exist, as we have already observed, particularly in Constantinople, and the neighbouring islands, where, though under grievous oppressions, they profess Christianity under their own patriarchs. It is said that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkish government, still preserve somewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles which distinguished their ancestors.

The conquest of Constantinople was followed by the submission of all Greece; and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was succeeded by Bajazet II. who carried on war against the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as the Persians and Egyptians. Bajazet falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harrassed by family differences, and at last, by order of his second son, Selim, he was poisoned by a Jew physician.

Selim afterwards ordered his elder brother, Achmet, to be strangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Persians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Persia, he turned his arms against Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was succeeded, in 1520, by his son, Soliman the magnificent; who taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Christian powers, took Rhodes, and drove

the

the knights from that island to Malta, which was given them by the emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Christian powers, and generally successful, both by sea and land; but he miscarried in an attempt he made to take the isle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greatest prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was succeeded, in 1566, by his son, Selim II. In his reign, the Turkish marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Christians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkish power, had the blow been pursued by the Christians, especially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis, in Africa, from the Moors. He was succeeded, in 1575, by his son, Amurath III. who forced the Persians to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewise took the important fortress of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593, he was succeeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is distinguished, by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be strangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were supposed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the sea. He was often unsuccessful in his wars with the Christians; and died of the plague in 1604. Though his successor, Achmet, was beaten by the Persians, yet he forced the Austrians to a treaty in 1606, and to consent that he should keep what he was possessed of in Hungary. Othman, a prince of great spirit, but no more than sixteen years of age, being unsuccessful against the Poles, he was put to death by the janisaries, whose power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV. succeeded in 1623, and took Bagdat from the Persians. His brother, Ibrahim, succeeded him in 1640; a worthless, inactive prince, and strangled by the janisaries in 1648. His successor, Mahomet IV. was excellently well served by his grand vizir, Cuperli. He took Candy from the Venetians, after it had been besieged for thirty years. This conquest cost the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is said, 180,000. A bloody war succeeded between the imperialists and the Turks, in which the latter were so successful, that they laid siege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raise it with great loss, by John Sobieski; king of Poland, and other Christian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687, shut up in prison by his subjects, and succeeded by his brother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unsuccessful in their wars during this reign, and that of his brother and successor, Achmet II. but Mustapha II. who mounted the throne in 1694, headed his

armies in person, and after some brisk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene; and the peace of Carlowitz, between the imperialists and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after, Mustapha was deposed, his musti was beheaded, and his brother, Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave shelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Russians by a glorious peace concluded at Pruth. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Christian powers. The scene of action was translated to Hungary, where the imperial general, prince Eugene, gave so many repeated defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a disgraceful peace, at Passarowitz, in 1718. An unfortunate war with the Persians, under Kouli Khan, succeeding, the populace demanded the heads of the vizir, the chief admiral, and the secretary, which were accordingly struck off; but Achmet was deposed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He was unsuccessful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at last obliged to recognize that usurper as sopher of Persia. He was, after that, engaged in a war with the imperialists and Russians; against the former he was victorious, but the successes of the latter, which threatened Constantinople itself, forced him to agree to a hasty treaty with the emperor, and after that to another with the Russians, which was greatly to his disadvantage. Mahomet died in 1754. He was succeeded by his brother, Osman III. who died in 1757, and was succeeded by his brother, Mustapha III. born in 1723, who is now reigning, and engaged in (1771) a hitherto unsuccessful war with the Russians.

The perseverance of the Turks, supplied by their numerous Asiatic armies, and their implicit submission to their officers, rather than any excellency in military discipline or courage in war, have been the great springs of those successes which render their empire at present so formidable. The extension, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed be in some measure owing to the military institution of the janisaries, a corps originally composed of the children of such Christian parents as could not pay their taxes. These being collected together, were formed to the exercise of arms under the eyes of their officers in the Seraglio. They were generally in number about 40,000; and so excellent was their discipline, that they were deemed to be invincible: and they still constitute the flower of the Turkish armies. After all, we must consider the political state of Europe, and the jealousies that subsist among its princes, as the surest basis of this empire, and the principal reason why the finest provinces in the world are suffered to remain in the possession of these haughty infidels.

TARTARY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | | | |
|---------|--------|-----------|------------------------------|
| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
| Length | 4000 | } between | { 50 and 150 east longitude. |
| Breadth | 2400 | | { 30 and 72 north latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] IT would be deceiving the reader to desire him to depend upon any accounts given us by geographers, of the extent, limits, and situation of those vast regions. Even the empress of Russia and her ministry are ignorant of her precise limits with the Chinese, the Persians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fullest extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean, on the north; by the Pacific Ocean, on the east; by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian Sea, on the south; and by Muscovy, on the west.

| Grand divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|---------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------|
| North-east division | { Kamtschatka Tartars | { Kamtschatka |
| | { Jakutskoi Tartars | { Jakutskoi |
| South-east division | { Bratski — — | { Bratski |
| | { Thibet and Mongul Tartars — — | { Poion |
| | | { Kudak |
| North-west division | { Samoieda — — | { Mangasia |
| | { Ostiack — — | { Kortskoi |
| South-west division | { Circassian and Astracan Tartary — — | { Terki |
| | | { Astracan |
| Middle division | { Siberia — — | { Tobolski |
| | { Kalmuc and Usbec Tartary — — | { Bokharia |
| | | { Samarcand. |

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains are those of Caucasus, in Circassia.

SEAS.] These are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caspian Sea.

RIVERS.] The rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course of two thousand miles; the Obey, which divides Asia from Europe; the Tabol, Irtis, Genefa or Jenka; the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Russian and Chinese empires.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.} The air of this country is very different, by reason of its vast extent from north to south; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the southern being in the same latitudes with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova Zembla and Russian Lapland are most uncomfortable

regions; the earth, which is covered with snow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholesome marshes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thickneses. Though Siberia is as it were another name for a country of horror, yet we are told that the air in the southern parts is tolerably mild, the soil furnished with good water, and cultivated with some success. The best accounts we have of its interior appearance, is from the ingenious French gentlemen who were sent thither to make astronomical observations; they all agree in representing it as a dismal region, and almost uninhabited. Astracan, and the southern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than industry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almost all the kinds known in Europe, especially grapes, which are reckoned the largest and finest in the world. Their summers are very dry; and from the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is pestiferous and the soil sometimes ruined by incredible quantities of locusts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Russian ambassador to China, represents some parts of Tartary as desirable and fertile countries, the grass growing spontaneously to an amazing height.

[METALS AND MINERALS.] It is said that Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, jasper, lapis lazuli, and loadstones; a sort of large teeth found here, creates some dispute among the naturalists, whether they belong to elephants, or are a marine production; their appearance is certainly whimsical and curious when polished with art and skill.

[ANIMALS.] These are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the north parts of Europe. Their horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy; as they run wild till they are five or six years old, they are generally headstrong. Near Astracan there is a bird called by the Russians baba, of a grey colour, and something larger than a swan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of the river, and on seeing a shoal of fry or small fishes, spreads his wings and drives them to a shallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going ashore, eats them or carries them to the young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

[POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS.] We can form no probable guess as to the number of inhabitants in Tartary, but from many circumstances we may conclude that they are not proportioned

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portioned to the extent of their country. They are in general strong made, stout men; their faces broad, their noses flattish, their eyes small and black, but very quick; their beards are scarcely visible, as they continually thin them by pulling up the hairs by the roots. The beauty of the Circassian women is a kind of staple commodity in that country; for parents there make no scruple of selling their daughters to recruit the seraglios of the great men of Turkey and Persia. They are purchased, when young, by merchants, and taught such accomplishments as suit their capacities, to render them more valuable against the day of sale. The Tartars are in general a wandering sort of people; in their perigrinations they set out in the spring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting spot, they live upon it till all its grass and verdure is eaten up. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Russians, Persians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; with this they purchase cloth, silks, stuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except those who make arms. They avoid all labour as the greatest slavery, their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horses. If they are angry with a person, they wish he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Russian. Among themselves they are very hospitable, and wonderfully so to the strangers and travellers who confidentially put themselves under their protection. They are naturally of an easy cheerful temper, always disposed to laughter, and seldom depressed by care or melancholy. There is a strong resemblance between the northern Tartars and some nations of Canada in North America, particularly when any of their people are infirm through great age, or seized with distempers reckoned incurable, they make a small hut for the patient near some river, in which they leave him with some provisions, and seldom or never return to visit him. On such occasions they say they do their parents a good office, in sending them to a better world. Notwithstanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, especially towards the south, are tractable, humane, and are susceptible of pious and virtuous sentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their submission to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has distinguished them in all ages. History tells us, that Darius, king of Persia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius sent an ambassador to demand where it was they proposed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to

begin fighting. They returned for answer, with a spirit so peculiar to that people, "That they had no cities nor cultivated fields, for the defence of which they should give him battle; but when once he was come to the place of their fathers monuments, he should then understand in what manner the Scythians used to fight."

The Tartars are inured to horsemanship from their infancy; they seldom appear on foot. They are dextrous in shooting at a mark, infomuch that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will cleft a pole with an arrow, though at a considerable distance. The dress of the men is very simple and fit for action; it generally consists of a short jacket, with narrow sleeves made of deers skin, having the fur outward; trowsers and hose of the same kind of skin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half sunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the smoak, and benches round the fire to sit or lie upon. This seems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eastward, to the Japanese ocean. In the extreme northern provinces, during the winter, every family burrows itself as it were under ground; and we are told, that so sociable are they in their dispositions, that they make subterraneous communications with each other, so that they may be said to live in an invisible city. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horse-flesh, especially if it be young, and a little tainted, which makes their cabins extremely nauseous. Though horse-flesh be preferred raw by some northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been smoaked and dried. The Tartars purchase their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or slave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes, the wife's son is always preferred to the succession. After a wife is turned of forty, she is employed in menial duties as another servant, and as such must attend the young wives who succeed to their places; nor is it uncommon in some of the more barbarous tribes for a father to marry his own daughter.

[RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars somewhat resembles their civil government, and is commonly accommodated to that of their neighbours, for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the popish religions. Some of them are the grossest idolators, and worship little rude images dressed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom they make very free when matters do not go according to their own mind. The religion and government of the kingdom

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of Tibet, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, form the most extraordinary article that is to be found in the history of mankind. The Tibetians are governed by a living, eating, and drinking god, whom they believe to be omnipotent, and whom they call the Grand Lama, or Dalay Lama. He resides in a pagoda or temple, upon the mountain Putali, in a cross-legged posture, but without speaking or moving, otherwise than by sometimes lifting his hand in approbation of a favourite worshipper. Not only the Tibetians, but the neighbouring princes and people flock in incredible numbers, with rich presents, to pay him their adorations; and he generally appears to be a healthy, ruddy-faced young man, about twenty-seven years of age. This being appointed deputies under him, the chief of whom is called the Tipa, who takes care of all the temporal affairs of the kingdom, and has a number of substituted lamas. These are properly the king and the governors of Tibet, both civil and military; it being below the dignity of the grand lama to superintend any temporal concerns.

As to the grand lama, he is himself the most miserable wretch in the empire. He is purchased, when young, from a healthy peasant, and privately brought up by the lamas to the business of his function, which is to move by clock-work, and to be carried in state to the place of his imprisonment, where he remains till next day, when the farce of his enthronement is repeated. When he falls ill, or becomes too old to act his part, he is dispatched by his ministers, who produce another, as like him as they can find, in his room; and when any alteration is observed, they always give satisfactory reasons why the dalay lama has changed his appearance. He is never suffered to touch any of the fine fruits or viands that are brought to his shrine, all which are devoured by his ministers, who take care to diet him in his prison. Such are the general outlines of this pretended theocracy, in which all travellers are agreed, however they may differ among themselves as to modes and circumstances.

LEARNING.] The reader may be surprized to find this article among a nation of Tartars, yet nothing is more certain than that under Zingis Khan, and Tamerlane, and their early descendants, Astracan and the neighbouring countries were the seats of learning and politeness, as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever so splendid, falls short of that of those princes; and some remains of their taste in architecture are still extant, but in spots so desolate, that they are almost inaccessible. The cultivation of learning was the first care of the prince, and generally committed to the

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care of his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Persian and Arabic tongues; and their histories, many of which are still extant in manuscript, carry with them the strongest marks of authenticity.

CURIOSITIES.] These are comprehended in the remains of the buildings, left by the abovementioned great conquerors, and their successors; they are, however, but little known to Europeans, though many of them are said to have been discovered by the wandering Tartars in the internal parts of the country. Some gold and silver coins of the same princes have likewise been found, with several manuscripts neatly written, which have been carried to Petersburg. In 1720, says Mr. Voltaire, in his History of Peter the Great, there was found in Calmuc Tartary, a subterraneous house of stone, some urns, lamps, and earrings, an equestrian statue, an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women seated on thrones, and a roll of manuscripts, which was sent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Tibet.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of these we know little but the names, and that they are no better than fixed herds. They may be said to be places of abode rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence against an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding divisions of this country, merit notice. Tobolski and Astracan are considerable cities, the first containing 15,000, and the latter 70,000 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns have lately been erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Russian government. But I apprehend it will require a considerable time before any fixed plan of government can be formed in this country.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This head makes no figure in the history of Tartary, their chief traffic consisting in cattle, skins, beavers, rhubarb, musk, and fish. The Astracans, notwithstanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a considerable traffic into Persia, to which they export red leather, woollen and linen cloth, and some European manufactures.

HISTORY.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furnished those amazing numbers who, under various names, destroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and those fine provinces, where learning and the arts resided, are now scenes of horror
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and barbarity. This must have been owing to the dreadful massacres made among the nations by the two abovementioned conquerors and their descendants; for nothing is more common in their histories than their putting to the sword three or four hundred thousand people in a few days.

The country of Usbec Tartary was once the seat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite residence of Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the spoils of India and the eastern world. It is so difficult to discover any remains of magnificence here, that some authors have absurdly questioned the veracity of the historians of these great conquerors, though it be better established than that of the Greek or Roman writers. The same may be said of Tamerlane, whose memory has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan, and whose descent is claimed not only by all the Khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Indostan himself. The capital of this country is Bokharia, which was known to the antients by the name of Bucharia, and it is situated in the latitude of 39 degrees 15 minutes, and 13 miles distant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane the Great.

The present inhabitants of this immense common compose innumerable tribes, who range at pleasure with their flocks and their herds, in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by separate Khans or leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great Khan, who claims a paramount power, over strangers as well as natives, and who can bring into the field from 20 to 100,000 horsemen. Their chief residence is a kind of military station, which is moved and shifted according to the chance of war and other occasions. They are bounded on every side by the Russian, the Chinese, the Mogul, the Persian, or the Turkish empires; each of whom are pushing on their conquests in this extensive, and in some places fertile country. The Khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgement of their dependency, upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendship of these barbarians is of the utmost consequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independency, and when united they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chinese, as we shall mention in our account of that empire.

The method of carrying on war, by wasting the country, is very antient among the Tartars, and practised by all of them from the Danube eastward. This circumstance renders

them

them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who must thereby be deprived of all subsistence; while the Tartars, having always many spare horses to kill and eat, are at no loss for provisions.

The Empire of CHINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---------|--------|-------------|----------------------------|
| Length | 1450 | } between { | 20 and 42 north latitude. |
| Breadth | 1260 | | 98 and 123 east longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by the Chinese Tartary, on the north; by the Pacific ocean, which divides it from North America, on the east; by the Chinese sea, south; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries of Tibet and Russia, on the west.

DIVISIONS.] The great division of this empire, according to the authors of the Universal History, is into fifteen provinces (exclusive of that of Lyau-tong, which is situate without the great wall, though under the same dominion); each of which might, for their largeness, fertility, populousness, and opulence, pass for so many distinct kingdoms.

But it is necessary to inform the reader, that the informations contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, are drawn from the papers of Jesuits, and other religious sent thither by the pope, but whose missions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of those fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of being informed about a century ago; but even their accounts of this empire are justly to be suspected. They had powerful enemies at the court of Rome, where they maintained their footing, only by magnifying their own labours and successes, as well as the importance of the Chinese empire.

NAME.] It is probably owing to a Chinese word, signifying Middle, from a notion the natives had that their country lay in the middle of the world.

MOUNTAINS.] China, excepting to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

RIVERS AND WATER.] The chief are the Yamour, and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Russian and Chinese Tartary; the Croccens, or Whambo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River, and the Tay. Common water in China, is very indifferent, and is in some places boiled to make it fit for use,

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BAYS.] The chief are those of Nanking and Canton.

CANALS.] These are sufficient to entitle the ancient Chinese to the character of being the wisest and most industrious people in the world. The commodiousness and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn stone on the sides, and they are so deep, that they carry large vessels, and sometimes they extend above 1000 miles in length. Those vessels are fitted up for all the conveniencies of life, and it has been thought by some that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furnished with stone quays, and sometimes with bridges of an amazing construction. The navigation is slow, and the vessels sometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perseverance for the safety of the passengers in case a canal is crossed by a rapid river, or exposed to torrents from the mountains. Those canals, and the variety that is seen upon their borders, renders China the most delightful to the eye of any country in the world, as well as fertile, in places that are not so by nature.

FORESTS.] Such is the industry of the Chinese, that they are not encumbered with forests or wood, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They suffer, however, none to grow but for ornament and use, or on the sides of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this empire is according to the situation of the places. Towards the north it is sharp, in the middle mild, and in the south hot. The soil is either by nature or art fruitful of every thing than can minister to the necessities, conveniencies, or luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious almost beyond description. The rare trees, and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and some are peculiar to itself; but even a catalogue of them would form a little volume. Some, however, must be mentioned.

The tallow tree has a short trunk, a smooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves, shaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil, serve the natives as candles, but they smell strong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees, peculiar to China, are some which yield a kind of flour; some partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of some are poisonous, but afford the finest varnish in the world. After all that can be said of
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those, and many other beautiful and useful trees, the Chinese, notwithstanding their industry, are so wedded to their ancient customs, that they are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The same may be said of their richest fruits, which, in general, are far from being so delicious as those of Europe, and indeed of America. This is owing to the Chinese never practising grafting, or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw-silk, which so much abounds in China, and above all, the tea plant or shrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent its luxuriancy. Notwithstanding our long intercourse with China, writers are still divided about the different species and culture of this plant. It is generally thought that the green and bohea grows on the same shrub, but that the latter admits of some kind of preparation, which takes away its raking qualities, and gives it a deeper colour. The other kinds, which go by the names of imperial, congo, singlo, and the like, are occasioned probably by the nature of the soils, and from the provinces in which they grow. The culture of this plant seems to be very simple, and it is certain, that some kinds are of a much higher and delicious flavour than others. It is thought that the finest, which is called the Flower of the tea, is imported over land to Russia; but we know of little difference in their effects on the human body. The greatest is between the bohea and the green.

I am apt to think that the Portuguese had the use of tea long before the English, and that it was introduced among the latter, before the restoration, as mention of it is made in the first act of parliament, that settled the excise on the king for life in 1660. Catharine of Lisbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the use of it common at his court. The ginseng, so famous among the Chinese, as the universal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is discovered in the British America. When brought to Europe, it is little distinguished for its healing qualities, and this instance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The ginseng, however, is a native of the Chinese Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] China (if we are to believe naturalists) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper is peculiar to itself, but we know of no extraordinary quality it possesses. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chinese government is that of not introducing a superabundance of gold and silver, for fear of hurting industry.

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industry. Their gold mines, therefore, are but slightly worked, and the currency of that metal is supplied by the grains the people pick up in the sand of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Honan.

POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.] The number of Chinese, by the best accounts, does not fall short of fifty millions; a number disproportioned to what we are told of the vast population of particular cities and provinces. Most of those accounts are exaggerated, and persons, who visit China without any view of becoming authors, are greatly disappointed in their mighty expectations. The Chinese, in their persons, are middle-sized, their faces broad, their eyes black and small, their noses rather short. The Chinese have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces, by the roots, with tweezers, leaving a few straggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexions towards the north is fair, towards the south swarthy, and the fatter a man is, they think him the handsomer. Men of quality, and learning, who are not much exposed to the sun, are delicately complexioned, and they who are bred to letters, let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to shew that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump, rosy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate though florid complexion. The smallness of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no swathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accomplishment, so that when they grow up, they may be said to totter rather than to walk. This fanciful piece of beauty was probably invented by the ancient Chinese, to palliate their jealousy.

To enter into all the starch ridiculous formalities of the Chinese, especially their men of quality, when paying or receiving visits, would give my reader little information, and less amusement, and very probably come too late, as the manners of the Chinese, since they fell under the power of the Tartars, are greatly altered, and daily vary. It is sufficient to observe, that the legislators of China, looking upon submission and subordination as the corner-stones of all society, devised those outward marks of respect, ridiculous as they appear to us, as the test of duty and respect from inferiors to superiors, and their capital maxim was, that the man who was deficient in civility, was void of good sense.

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By the latest and best accounts, the Chinese in general are the most dishonest, low, thieving set in the world, and they employ their natural quickness only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, especially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great ease, particularly the English, but they observe that none but a Chinese can cheat a Chinese. They are fond of law disputes beyond any people in the world. Their hypocrisy is without bounds, and the men of property among them, practise the most avowed bribery, and the lowest meannesses to obtain preferment.

DRESS.] This varies according to the degrees of men among them. The men wear caps on their heads of the fashion of a bell, those of quality are ornamented with jewels. The rest of their dress is easy and loose, consisting of a vest and a sash, a coat or gown thrown over them, silk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies towards the south wear nothing on their head. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and sometimes it is dishevelled. Their dress differs but little from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very large open sleeves. The dress, both of men and women, varies however according to the temperature of the climate.

MARRIAGES.] The parties never see each other in China till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children. Next to being barren, the greatest scandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of a poor family happens to have three or four girls, successively, she will expose or strangle them, which is the principal reason of so many children being found in the streets and highways.

FUNERALS.] People of note cause their coffins to be made, and their tombs to be built in their life-time. No persons are buried within the walls of a city, nor is a dead corpse suffered to be brought into a town, if a person died in the country. Every Chinese keeps in his house a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grandfather; before which they frequently burn incense, and prostrate themselves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceased is added.

LANGUAGE.] The Chinese language consists of a very few words, or rather syllables, which admit of so many variations, and so much modified by sounds and action, that it is generally thought no stranger can attain it, so as to speak it.

GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The genius of the Chinese is peculiar to themselves. They have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in

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painting, and yet in their gardening, and planning their grounds, they hit upon the true sublime and beautiful. The learning of the Chinese has been displayed in several specimens published by Du Halde, as well as of poetry, but they contain no more than a set of maxims and precepts, accommodated to public and private life, without an thing argumentative or descriptive. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickness, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no apparatus for astronomical observations; and metaphysical learning, if it existed among them, was only known to their philosophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jesuits, were of very short duration among them, and lasted very little longer than the reign of Cang-hi, who was contemporary with our Charles II. nor is it very probable they ever will be revived. It has been generally said, that they understood printing before the Europeans; but that can be only applied to block printing, for the fusile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chinese, however, had almanacs, which were stamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was discovered in Europe. The invention of gunpowder is justly claimed by the Chinese, who made use of it against Zingis Khan and Tamerlane. They seem to have known nothing of small fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their industry in their manufactures of stuffs, porcelain, japanning, and the like sedentary trades is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raising gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Few natural curiosities present themselves in China, that have not been comprehended under preceding articles. Some volcanos, rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Linesung is said sometimes to make so furious a discharge of fire and ashes, as to occasion a tempest in the air, and some of their lakes are said to petrify fishes when put into them. The artificial curiosities of China are stupendous. The great wall, separating China from Tartary, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars, is supposed to extend 1500 miles. It is carried over mountains and valleys, and reaches from the province of Xenshi to the Kang sea, between the provinces of Pekin and Lænotum. It is in most places built of brick and mortar, which is so well tempered, that though it has stood for 1800 years, it is but little decayed.

The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, in the province of Petcheli, to the east of Pekin, and almost in the same latitude; it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraced and cased with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high. P. Regis, and the other gentleman, who took a map of these provinces, often stretched a line on the top, to measure the basis of triangles, and to take distant points with an instrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or six horsemen to travel abreast with ease. Mention has been already made of the prodigious canals and roads, that are cut through this empire.

The artificial mountains present on their tops temples, monasteries, and other edifices, fabricated by hands. Some part, however, of what we are told concerning the cavities in these mountains, seems to be fabulous. The Chinese bridges cannot be sufficiently admired. They are built sometimes upon barges strongly chained together, yet so as to be parted, and to let the vessels pass that sail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and consist only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long, and 500 high, though a single arch, and joins two mountains, and some in the interior parts of the empire, are said to be still more stupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next species of artificial curiosities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman stile of architecture, yet they are superb and beautiful, and erected to the memories of their great men, with vast labour and expence. They are said in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their sepulchral monuments, make likewise a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now so common in Europe under the name of pagodas, are vast embellishments to the face of their country. They seem to be constructed by a regular order, and all of them are finished with exquisite carvings and giddings, and other ornaments; that at Nanking, which is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter, is the most admired. It is called the Porcelane Tower, because it is lined with Chinese tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the disagreeable taste in which they are built, for their capaciousness, their whimsical ornaments, and the ugliness of the idols they contain. The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which give name to one of their principal festivals. A bell of Pekin weighs 120,000 pound, but its sound is said to be disagreeable. The last curiosity I shall mention, is their fire-works, which in China exceed those of all other nations.

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In short, every province of China is a scene of curiosities. Their buildings, excepting as mentioned, their pagodas, being confined to no order, and susceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleasing elegance not void of magnificence, that it is agreeable to the eye, and the imagination, and presents a diversity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

CHIEF CITIES.] Little can be said of these more than that some of them are immense, and there is great reason to believe their population is much exaggerated. The empire is said to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Pekin, Nankin, and Canton. The former is the residence of the present royal family, and is moderately reckoned to contain two million of inhabitants, but Nanking is said to exceed it both in extent and population. The walls of Pekin are 50 cubits high, and are defended by towers, at a bow-shot distance from each other, with redoubts at every gate. It is divided into two parts like London and Westminster, the Chinese and the Tartar. The imperial palace, which is no other than an amazing assemblage of neat beautiful buildings, but without order or regularity, stands in the latter.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is so happily situated, and produces such a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be said to be the native land of industry; but it is an industry without taste or elegance, though carried on with vast art and neatness. They make paper of the bark of bamboo, and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable for records, or printing, to the European. Their ink, for the use of drawing, is well known in England, and is said to be made of oil and lamp-black. I have already mentioned the antiquity of their printing, which they still do by cutting their characters on blocks of wood. The manufacture of that earthen ware, generally known by the name of China, was long a secret in Europe, and brought immense sums to that country. The ancients knew and esteemed it highly under the name of Porcelain, but it was of a much better fabric than the modern. Though the Chinese affect to keep that manufacture still a secret, yet it is well known that the principal material is a prepared pulverized earth, and that several European countries far exceed the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity. The Chinese silks are generally plain and flowered gawses, and they are said to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing silk-worms was first discovered. They manufacture silks likewise of a more durable kind, and their cotton, and other cloths, are famous for furnishing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for such is the pride and avarice of the Chinese, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain, that since the discovery of the porcelain manufactures, and the vast improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chinese commerce has been on the decline.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This was a most instructive entertaining article, before the conquest of China by the Tartars, for though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chinese, they have obliged the inhabitants to deviate from the ancient discipline in many respects. Perhaps their acquaintance with the Europeans may have contributed to their degeneracy. The original plan of the Chinese government was patriarchal, almost in the strictest sense of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the most rigorous manner, but at the same time, the emperor was considered as the father of the whole. His mandarines, or great officers of state, were looked upon as his substitutes, and the degrees of submission which were due from the inferior ranks to the superior, were settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision, and in a manner that to us seems highly ridiculous. This simple claim of obedience required great address and knowledge of human nature, to render it effectual; and the Chinese legislators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of mystical appearances, so as to strike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarines had modes of speaking and writing, different from those of other subjects, and the people were taught to believe that their princes partook of divinity, so that they were seldom seen, and more seldom approached.

Though this system preserved the public tranquillity, for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental effect that often convulsed, and at last proved fatal to the state, because the same attention was not paid to the military as the civil duties. The Chinese had passions like other men, and sometimes a weak or wicked administration, drove them into arms, and a revolution easily succeeded, which they justified by saying, that their sovereign had ceased to be their father. During those commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours the Tartars to their assistance, and it was thus those barbarians, who had great sagacity, became acquainted with the weak side of their constitution, and they availed themselves accordingly, by invading and conquering the empire.

Besides

Besides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chinese had sumptuary laws, and regulations for the expences of all degrees of subjects, which were very useful in preserving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their institutions likewise the mandarines might remonstrate to the emperor, but in the most submissive manner, upon the errors of his government, and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the most salutary effects. No country in the world is so well provided with magistrates for the discharge of justice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China, but they are often ineffectual through want of public virtue in the execution. The emperor is stiled Holy son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.

RELIGION.] This article is nearly connected with the preceding. Though the ancient Chinese worshipped idols, and seemed to admit of a particular providence, yet their philosophers and legislators were atheists or materialists, and indulged the people in the worship of sensible objects, only to make them more submissive to government. The Jesuits long imposed upon the public of Europe, on this head, and suffered their proselytes to worship Tien, pretending, that it was no other than the name of God, but a strict scrutiny being made by the court of Rome, it was found to signify universal matter. The truth is, Confucius, and the Chinese legislators, introduced a most excellent system of morals among the people, and endeavoured to supply the belief of a future state, by prescribing to them the worship of inferior deities. Their morality approximates to that of Christianity, but as we know little of their religion, but through the Jesuits, we cannot adopt for truth the numerous instances, which they tell us of the conformity of the Chinese with the Christian religion. Those fathers, it must be owned, were men of great abilities, and made a wonderful progress above a century ago in their conversions; but they mistook the true character of the emperor who was their patron, for he no sooner found that they were in fact aspiring to the civil direction of the government, than he expelled them, levelled their churches with the ground, and prohibited the exercise of their religion; since which time Christianity has made no figure in China.

REVENUES.] These are said by some, to amount to twenty millions sterling a year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not at all abound in China. The taxes collected for the use of the government in rice, and other commodities,

are certainly very great, and very possibly amount to that sum.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] China is, at this time, a far more powerful empire, than it was before its conquest by the eastern Tartars in 1644. This is owing to the consummate policy of Chun-tchi, the first Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tartar dress and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chinese were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the seat of his government, and the Tartars quietly submitted to a change of their country and condition which was so much in their favour.

This security, however, of the Chinese from the Tartars, takes from them all military objects; the Tartar power alone being formidable to that empire. The only danger that threatens it at present, is the difuse of arms. The Chinese land army is said to consist of five millions of men, but in these are comprehended all who are employed in the collection of the revenue, and the preservation of the canals, the great roads and the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. As to the marine force, it is composed chiefly of the junks, we have already mentioned, and other small ships, that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent sudden descents.

HISTORY.] The Chinese pretend as a nation to an antiquity beyond all measure of credibility, but though their pretensions have been repeatedly confuted by learned men, they certainly have evidences of a much higher antiquity, than any people on earth (the Jews perhaps excepted) can produce. Their exactness in astronomical observations, rude as they were in that science, before their commerce with the Europeans; their immemorial use of printing; their peaceable patriarchal scheme of government, and several other incidental advantages contributed to this priority. A succession of excellent princes, and a duration of domestic tranquillity united legislation with philosophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whose history however is wrapped up in mysteries, their Li-Laokum, and above all their Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. After all, the internal revolutions of the empire, though rare, produced the most dreadful effects, in proportion as its constitution was pacific, and they were attended with the most bloody exterminations in some provinces; so that though the Chinese empire is hereditary, the imperial succession was more than once broken into,

Neither

Neither the great Zinghis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chinese, could subdue their empire, and neither of them could keep the conquests they made there. The celebrated wall, proved but a feeble barrier against the arms of those famous Tartars. After their invasions were over, the Chinese went to war with the Manchew Tartars, while an indolent worthless emperor Tsong-tching, was upon the throne. In the mean while a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tse, in the province of Se-tchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himself, as did most of his courtiers and women. Ou-san-quey, the Chinese general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refused to recognize the usurper, and made a peace with Tsongate, the Manchew prince, who drove the usurper from the throne, and took possession of it himself, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himself in his authority, and as has been already mentioned, wisely incorporated his hereditary subjects with the Chinese, so that in effect Tartary became an acquisition to China. He was succeeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who was the patron of the jesuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government.

About the year 1661, the Chinese, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the island of Formosa, which the latter had taken from the Portuguese. Though the intercourse between Europe and China has been greatly improved since that time, yet we know very little of the internal events of China, excepting those that affect our trade, which is now at a low pass in that country, owing to the vast distance and uncertainty of the voyage, the native chicanery of the Chinese themselves, and the Europeans having supplied themselves either at home or from other countries with many of their commodities.

INDIA IN GENERAL.

SITUATION AND } THIS vast country is situated be-
BOUNDARIES. } tween the 66th and 109th deg. of
east longitude, and between 1 and 40 of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by the countries of Usbec Tartary and Ti et; on the south, by the Indian Ocean; on the east, by China and the Chinese sea; and on the west, by Persia and the Indian sea.

DIVISIONS.] I shall divide, as others have done, India at large into three great parts; first, the Peninsula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Further Peninsula; second, the

main land, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the Peninsula within or on this side the Ganges: all of them vast populous and extended empires. But it is necessary, in order to save many repetitions, to premise an account of some particulars that are in common to those numerous nations, which shall be extracted from the most enlightened of our modern writers who have visited the country in the service of the East India company.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, & Mr. Orme, an excellent RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. § and an authentic historian, comprehends the two latter divisions under the title of Indostan. The Mahometans (says he) who are called Moors, of Indostan, are computed to be about ten millions, and the Indians about an hundred millions. Above half the empire is subject to rajahs, or kings, who derive their descent from the old princes of India, and exercise all rights of sovereignty, only paying a tribute to the great mogul, and observing the treaties by which their ancestors recognized his superiority. In other respects, the government of Indostan is full of wise checks upon the overgrowing greatness of any subject; but (as all precautions of that kind depend upon the administration) the indolence and barbarity of the moguls or emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitless.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos, or, as others call them, Hindoos. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legislator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he existed many thousand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was some great and good genius, whose beneficence, like that of the pagan legislators, led his people and their posterity to pay him divine honours. The bramins (for so the Gentoopriests are called) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vidam, containing his doctrines and institutions; and that though the original is lost, they are still possessed of a commentary upon it, called the Shahstah, which is wrote in the Sanscrit language, now a dead language, and known only to the bramins who study it. The foundation of Brumma's doctrine consisted in the belief of a supreme Being, who has created a regular gradation of beings, some superior, and some inferior to man: in the immortality of the soul, and a future state of rewards and punishments, which is to consist of a transmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-existent state. From this it appears more than probable that the Pythagorean metempsychosis took its rise in India.

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The necessity of inculcating this sublime, but otherwise complicated doctrine, into the lower ranks, induced the bramins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourse to sensible representations of the Deity and his attributes; so that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated to rank ridiculous idolatry, in the worship of the most hideous figures; either delineated or carved; and the belief of an omnipotent Being is now almost lost among the Gentoos.

Those Indians are particularly distinguished from the rest of mankind by their division into tribes, the four principal of which are the bramins, soldiers, labourers, and mechanics. These are again subdivided into a multiplicity of inferior distinctions. The bramins have an intire power, which they use commonly to very bad purposes, over the minds of the people; though some of them are superstitious, moral, and innocent. They are all of them such bigots, that excepting the Hallachores, who are the refuse and outcasts of the other tribes, and disowned and detested by them all, Mr. Scrafton doubts (whatever the Roman-catholics may pretend) whether there ever was an instance of any other of the Gentoos being converted by the missionaries. In short, the bramins in general are a designing degenerate set of men; but Mr. Scrafton, who gives us that picture of them, acknowledges that, amidst all their errors, they agree in those truths which form the harmony of the universe, that there is *one supreme God, and that he is best pleased by charity and good works.*

The soldiers are commonly called Rajah-poots, or persons descended from rajahs, and reside chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the southern provinces, who are quite black. These rajah-poots are a robust, brave, faithful people, and enter into the service of those who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finished, and they run off the field without any stain upon their reputation.

The labourers are the farmers and all who are concerned in the cultivation of lands.

The mechanics are merchants, bankers, traders of all kinds, and are divided into many subordinations.

Those different tribes (says Mr. Scrafton) are forbid to intermarry, to cohabit, to eat with each other, or even to drink out of the same vessel with one of another tribe; and every deviation in these points, subjects them to be rejected by their tribe, renders them for ever polluted, and they are thenceforward obliged to herd with the Hallachores. This division

is attended with infinite inconveniencies, for excepting the rajah-poots, no Gentoos think of defending himself in case of invasions, which, when made from the sea, have been generally successful. The same division, however, has, notwithstanding all the convulsions of their government, and all their oppressions under the Mahometans, preserved their manufactures among them, which, while the son can follow no other trade than that of his father, can never be lost but by exterminating the people.

Different kinds of food are assigned to different tribes. The bramins touch nothing that has life; the soldiers are permitted to eat venison, mutton, and fish; the labourers and merchants live differently, according to their sex and professions, some of them being allowed to eat fish, but none of them animal food.

The practice of women burning themselves, upon the death of their husbands, is now said to be disused all over Indostan; and the Gentoos in general chuse death by famine rather than pollute themselves by eating a forbidden food. This picture of the Gentoos seems to be drawn before our wars with the French in that country; for if we are to believe some travellers, they begin now to relax in the practice of their religious duties. The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniencies, as the Chinese; and there scarcely is an instance of a robbery in all Indostan, though the diamond merchants travel without defensive weapons.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos, are stupendous, but disgusting stone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the tuition of the bramins. If the bramins are masters of any uncommon art or science, they turn it to the purposes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton says, that they know how to calculate eclipses; and that judicial astrology is so prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head astrologer being always consulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewise encourage those superstitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoos industry as belonging to themselves. Though the Gentoos are entirely passive under all their oppressions, and by their state of existence, the practice of their religion, and the scantiness of their food, have nothing of that resentment in their nature that animates the rest of mankind; yet they are susceptible of avarice, and sometimes bury their money, and rather than discover it put themselves to death by poison or otherwise. This practice, which it seems is not uncommon,

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accounts for the vast scarcity of silver that till of late prevailed in Indostan.

The reasons abovementioned account likewise for their being free of all those passions, particularly that of love, and sensations that render the rest of mankind either happy or miserable. Their perpetual use of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nourishment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their persons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women is on decay at eighteen: at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are not therefore to wonder at their being soon strangers to all personal exertion and vigour of mind; and it is with them a frequent saying, that it is better to sit than to walk, to lie down than to sit, to sleep than to wake, and death is the best of all.

The Mahometans, who, in Indostan, are called Moors, are of Persian, Turkish, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the califs of Bagdat, to invade Indostan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They settled colonies in several places, whose descendants are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which still subsists. Those princes being strict Mahometans, received under their protection all who professed the same religion, and who being a brave active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are said to have introduced the division of provinces, over which they appointed soubahs; and those provinces, each of which might be stiled an empire, were subdivided into nabobships, each nabob being immediately accountable to his soubah, who in process of time became almost independent on the emperor, or, as he is called, the great mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute. The vast resort of Persian and Tartar tribes have likewise strengthened the Mahometan government; but it is observable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all those adventurers, who though they bring nothing with them but their horses and their swords, degenerate into all eastern indolence and sensuality.

Of all those tribes, the Marattas at present make the greatest figure. They are a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Indostan and Persia. They commonly serve on horseback, and when well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold active spirits, and pay no great respect to the principles of their religion.

Mr.

Mr. Scrafton says, that the Mahometans or Moors are of so detestable a character, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and those were among the Tartar and Persian officers of the army. They are void of every principle even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hospitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will stab him to the heart.

The people of Indostan are governed by no written laws, and their courts of justice are directed by precedents. The Mahometan institutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that state even down to the subtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each district. The imperial demefine lands are those of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his successors. Certain portions of them are called jagaire lands, and are bestowed by the crown on the great lords or omrahs, and upon their death revert to the emperor; but the rights of the subtenants, even of those lands, are indefeasible.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long subsisted, without almost the semblance of virtue among its great officers either civil or military. It was shaken, however, after the invasion of Mahomet Shah, which was attended by so great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the soubahs and nabobs became absolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their own armies and support their power; so that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-masters, were left to perish through want. To sum up the misery of the inhabitants, those soubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the bramins and the Gentoos themselves as the ministers of their rapaciousness and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever since the invasion of Kouli Kan, Indostan, from being the best regulated government in the world, is become a scene of mere anarchy or stratocracy; every great man protects himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private assassinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worse estate, concern themselves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above causes are owing the present
successes

successes of the English in Indostan; and it is their interest to bring, as soon as possible, that government back to its first principles under the family of Tamerlane. The reader, from this representation, may perceive likewise, that all that the English have acquired in point of territory, has been gained from usurpers and robbers; and their possession of it being guarantied by the present law ul emperor, is founded upon the laws and constitutions of that country.

It may be here proper just to observe, that the complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and the features of both sexes regular. At court, however, the great families are ambitious of intermarrying with Persians and Tartars, on account of the fairness of their complexion, resembling that of their conqueror Tamerlane and his great generals.

The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES,
called the FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | | |
|---------|--------|--|
| | Miles. | Degrees. |
| Length | 2000 | } between { 1 and 30 north latitude. 92 and 109 east longitude. |
| Breadth | 1000 | |

BOUNDARIES.] THIS peninsula is bounded by Tibet and China, on the north; by China and the Chinese Sea, on the east; by the same sea and the Straits of Malacca, on the south; and by the bay of Bengal and the Hither India, on the west.

| Grand divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|-------------------|----------------|--|
| On the north-west | Acham — — | Chambara |
| | Ava — — — | Ava |
| | Aracan — — | Aracan. |
| On the south-west | Pegu — — — | Pegu, E. lon. 97. N. lat. 17-30. |
| | Martaban — — | Martaban |
| | Siam, — — — | Siam, E. lon. 100-55. N. lat. 14-18. |
| | Malacca — — | Malacca, E. lon. 102-10. N. lat. 2-12. |
| On the north-east | Tonquin — — | Cachao, or Keccio, E. lon. 105. N. lat. 21-30. |
| | Laos — — — | Lanchang. |
| On the south-east | Cochin China — | Thoanoa |
| | Cambodia — — | Cambodia |
| | Chiampa — — — | Padram. |

NAME.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was best known to the Persians. The whole of this peninsula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly so to the moderns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] This country is so little known, that authors differ concerning its air, some preferring that of the southern, and some that of the northern parts. It is generally agreed, that the air of the former is hot and dry, but in some places moist, and consequently unhealthy. The climate is subject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, so that the people build their houses upon high pillars to defend them from floods; and they have no other idea of seasons, but wet and dry. Easterly and westerly monsoons (which is an Indian word) prevail in this country.

MOUNTAINS.] These run from north to south almost the whole length of the country; but the lands near the sea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy season.

RIVERS.] The chief are Domea, Meas, Menan, and Ava.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochinchina. The straits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and Banfac.

SOIL AND PRODUCT OF THE } DIFFERENT NATIONS. } The soil of this peninsula is fruitful in general, and produces all the delicious fruits that are found in other countries, as well as roots and vegetables. It abounds likewise in silks, elephants, and quadrupeds, both domestic and wild, that are common in the southern kingdoms of Asia. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethysts, and other precious stones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the most healthful country of all the peninsula. In some places, especially towards the north, the inhabitants have swellings in their throats, owing to the badness of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, } AND DIVERSIONS. } The Tonquinese are excellent mechanics and fair traders; but greatly oppressed by their king and great lords. His majesty engrosses the trade, and his factors sell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquinese are fond of lacquer houses, which are unwholesome and poisonous. The people in the south are a savage race, and go almost naked, with large silver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or shell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochinchina, the two sexes are scarcely distinguishable by their dress, which resembles that of the Persians. The people of quality are fond of English broad-cloth, red or green, and others wear a dark

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coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is thought one of the best countries in Asia, the inhabitants prefer dogs flesh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, because the king is sole proprietor of all the gold and silver and other metals found in his kingdom. They live, however, easily and comfortably. Almost every house-keeper has an elephant for the conveniency of his wives and women, polygamy being practised all over India.

It is unquestionable that those Indians, as well as the Chinese, had the use of gunpowder before it was known in Europe, and the invention is generally ascribed to the Azemese. The inhabitants of the southern division of this peninsula go under the name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the religious superstitions that prevail in this peninsula are as gross as those described under the article of Tibet, and the civil government of the two countries in many particulars resemble each other, yet the people believe in a future state; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and such vessels of gold and silver as they think can be of use to them in their future life. The people in this peninsula, are commonly very fond of shew, and often make an appearance beyond their circumstances. They are delicate in no part of their dress but in their hair, which they buckle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loathsome, for besides dogs, they eat rats, mice, serpents, and stinking fish. The people of Arraken are equally indelicate in their amours, for they hire Dutch and other foreigners to consummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women most when in a state of pregnancy. Their treatment of the sick is ridiculous beyond belief; and in many places, when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is exposed on the bank of some river, where he is either drowned or devoured by birds or beasts of prey.

The diversions common in this country are fishing and hunting, the celebration of festivals, and their acting comedies by torch-light from evening to morning.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Persian, but in this peninsula it is chiefly Malayan, as we have already observed, interpersed with other dialects.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] It is more than probable that the Egyptians, the nation from which the Greeks and Romans drew the fine arts, owed them to the bramins, and the Gentoos, who are sometimes called Banians. The names, however, of the legislators and bramins, or whoever their learned men were who spread their knowledge among the
East-

East-Indians, have either perished or are obscured by impenetrable clouds of allegory. Some late English authors, who were well acquainted with the affairs of Indostan, have assured us that that empire still contains men of the most unspotted lives and profound knowledge of all the original bramin theology, morality, and civil constitutions. Such men are hard to be discovered, but when accessible, they are modest and communicative in all branches of their learning, but those in which they are enjoined an inviolable secrecy; and we have some well attested instances where they have suffered death rather than betray their secrets, which are hereditary in their families. Others, from the profligate selfish characters of the common bramins, think that all this sanctity and learning is mere pretext and grimace. I have already mentioned their understanding astronomy so far as to calculate eclipses.

[MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] These vary in the different countries of this peninsula, but the chief branches have been already mentioned. The inhabitants, in some parts, are obliged to manufacture their salt out of ashes. In all handicraft trades that they understand, the people are more industrious and better workmen than the Europeans; and in weaving, sewing, embroidering, and some other manufactures, it is said that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineness of their linen, and their sillagree work in gold and silver, are beyond any thing of those kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in short, is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been so from the earliest ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their highest materials of luxury. The greatest share of it, through events foreign to this part of our work, is now centered in England, though that of the Dutch is still very considerable; that of the French has been for some time on the decline; nor is that of the Swedes and Danes entirely discontinued.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, } This article is so ex-
RARITIES, AND CITIES. } tensive, that it requires
a slight review of the kingdoms that form this peninsula. In Azen, I have already observed, the king is proprietor of all the gold and silver: he pays little or nothing to the great mogul. We know little or nothing of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was antiently subject to the kings of Arrakan; and that they send to the Chinese gold and silk, for which they receive silver in return. Arrakan lies to the south of Tipra, and is governed by 12 princes, subject to the chief

king, who resides in his capital. His palace is very large, and contains, as we are told, seven idols cast in gold of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered over with diamonds and other precious stones. Pegu is about 350 English miles in length, and almost the same in breadth. It is uncertain whether it is not at present subject to the king or emperor of Ava. The riches of the king (whoever he is) are almost incredible; some of his idols, as big as life, being of massy gold and silver. His revenues arise from the rents of lands, of which he is sole proprietor, and from duties on merchandize; so that some think him to be the richest monarch in the world, excepting the Chinese emperor. He can bring a million, and on occasion, a million and a half of soldiers to the field, well clothed and armed; and he is said to be master of 800 trained elephants, each with a castle on his back holding four soldiers. The constitution of his empire is of the feudal kind, for he assigns lands and towns to his nobles upon military tenures. Macao is the great mart of trade in Pegu.

We know little of the kingdom of Ava; we are not even sure to whom it belongs. It is said, the honours the king assumes are next to divine. His subjects trade chiefly in musk and jewels, rubies and sapphires. In other particulars, the inhabitants resemble those of Pegu. In those kingdoms, and indeed in the greatest part of this peninsula, the doctrines of the Lama or Dairo, the living god, already described, equally prevail as those of the bramins. Whether the former is not a corruption of the latter, and both of them of ill understood Christianity and Judaism, is an enquiry scarcely worth pursuing. The principles of the Lama are best calculated for rendering the king a mere cypher in his government, which is entirely vested in his priests and ministers.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos, formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay, but we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is said to be immensely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the gross superstitions of the east, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one sovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is absolutely despotic, and lives in inexpressible pomp and magnificence; but being of the Lama religion, is the slave of his priests and ministers.

The kingdom of Siam has been often described by missionaries and pretended travellers, in the most romantic terms, and therefore we can pay little other credit to their accounts, further than that it is a rich and flourishing kingdom, and that it approaches in its government, policy, the quick-

ness and acuteness of its inhabitants, very near to the Chinese. The kingdom of Siam is surrounded by high mountains, which, on the east side, separate it from the kingdoms of Cambaja and Laos; on the west, from Pegu; and on the north, from Ava, or, more properly, from Jangoma, which is subject to Ava; on the south it is washed by the river Siam, and has the peninsula of Malacca, the north-west part whereof is under its dominion. The extent of the country, however, is very uncertain, and it is but indifferently peopled. The inhabitants, of both sexes, are more modest than any found in the rest of this peninsula. Great care is taken of the education of their children. Their marriages are simple, and performed by their talapoins or priests, sprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating some prayers. We are told that gold is so abundant in this country, that their most ponderous images are made of it, and that it is seen in vast quantities on the outside of the king's palace. Those relations are found by modern travellers to be the fictions of French and other missionaries; for though the country has mines of gold, their ornaments are either excessive thin plates of that metal, or a very bright lacker that cover wooden or other materials. The government here is excessively despotic; even servants must appear before their masters in a kneeling posture; and the mandarines are prostrated before the king. Siam, the capital, is represented as a large city, but scarcely a sixth part of it is inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bankek, which stands about 8 leagues to the south of Siam, and 12 miles from the sea, is the only place towards the coast that is fortified with walls, batteries, and brass cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which stands on the east side of the peninsula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninsula of Malacca is a large country, and contains several kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are said to be the real masters and sovereigns of the whole peninsula, being in possession of the capital (Malacca.) The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the purest of any spoken in all the Indies. We are told by the latest travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants teeth, canes, and gums. Some missionaries pretend that it is the Golden Chersonesus or Peninsula of the antients, and that the inhabitants used to measure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent situation of this country admits of a trade with India; so that when it was first discovered by the Portuguese, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richest city in the east, next

to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at present, is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chinese. This degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an industrious ingenious people, is easily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whose interest it is that they should never recover from their present state of ignorance and slavery.

The English carry on a smuggling kind of trade in their country ships, from the coast of Coromandel and the bay of Bengal, to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council among them, who little regard the orders of their superiors, provided they can enrich themselves.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but according to the best information, its greatest length, from north to south, is about 520 English miles; and its greatest breadth, from west to east, about 398 miles. This kingdom has a spacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the nation, on account of its sultry air, and the pestiferous gnats, serpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its soil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by sea and land, are much the same with the other kingdoms of this vast peninsula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour, and, as they say, an excellent remedy for all those diseases that are common to the inhabitants of the East-Indies, is the highest luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peasant, but is very unpalatable and disagreeable to the Europeans. The same barbarous magnificence, despotism of their king, and ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the rest of the peninsula. Between Cambodia and Cochin-China lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chinese, and seem therefore to be somewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

Cochin-China, or the western China, is situated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to some authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much less extensive in its breadth from east to west. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as some other smaller kingdoms, are said to be tributary to Cochin-China, some particulars of which I have mentioned in the general view of this peninsula. The manners and religion of the people seem to be originally Chinese, and they are much given to trade. Their king is said to be immensely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the East-Indies; but at the same time we are told, that this mighty prince, as

well as the king of Tonquin, are subject to the Chinese emperor. It is reasonable to suppose, that all those rich countries were peopled from China, or at least, that they had, some time or other, been governed by one head, till the mother empire became so large, that it might be convenient to parcel it out, reserving to itself a kind of feudal superiority over them all.

Tonquin has been already mentioned, and I can add little to what has been said, unless I was to adopt the fictions of the popish missionaries. The government of this kingdom, however, is particular. The Tonquinese had revolted from the Chinese, which was attended by a civil war. A compromise at last took place between the chief of the revolt and the representative of the antient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of the Chouah; but that the Bua, or real king, should retain the royal titles, and be permitted some inconsiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can stir without the permission of the chouah. This history seems to be of the lama extraction, or at least copied from that worship.

The chouah resides generally in the capital Cachao, which is situated near the center of the kingdom. The bua's palace is a vast structure, and has a fine arsenal. The English have a very flourishing house on the north side of their city, conveniently fitted up with storehouses and office-houses, a noble dining-room, and handsome apartments for the merchants factors, and officers of the company.

The above is the imperfect account I am enabled, without departing from the rules of probability, to give of this vast peninsula. Its rarities, consisting of houses overlaid with gold, and solid idols of the same metal, adorned with an infinite number of precious stones and jewels, are mentioned by many travellers; but it is difficult to give them credit, when we consider the undisciplined weakness of the inhabitants, their superstition, indolence, ignorance, and native timidity; which must render them a prey not only to European adventurers, but to the Tartar conquerors of China. To this we may add, the universally admitted passion of those people for ostentation, and the many discoveries that have been made by candid travellers, of their displaying plated or gilded furniture and ornaments, at which they are wonderfully expert, for those of massy gold.

The possession of rubies, and other precious stones of an extraordinary size, and even of white or party-coloured elephants, convey among those credulous people a pre-eminence
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of rank and royalty, and has sometimes occasioned bloody wars. After all, it must be acknowledged that however dark the accounts we have of those kingdoms may be, yet there is sufficient evidence to prove that they are immensely rich in all the treasures of nature; but that those advantages are attended with many natural calamities, such as floods, volcanos, earthquakes, tempests, and above all, rapacious and poisonous animals, which render the possession of life, even for an hour, precarious and uncertain.

INDIA within the GANGES, or the Empire of the GREAT MOGUL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT; including the peninsula west of the Ganges.

| | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Miles. | Degrees. |
| Length 2000 } Breadth 1500 } | between { 7 and 40 north latitude. 66 and 92 east longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] THIS empire is bounded by Usbec Tartary and Tibet, on the north; by Tibet and the Bay of Bengal, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, on the south; by the same and Persia, on the west. The main land being the Mogul empire, or Indostan properly so called.

| Grand divisions. | Provinces. | Chief towns. | |
|--|---|--|------------|
| The north-east division of India, containing the provinces of Bengal, on the mouths of the Ganges, and those of the mountains of Naugracut | Bengal Proper | Calcutta Fort William Hugly — } English Dacca — } Malda, Eng. and Dutch Chatigan Cassimbazar | |
| | Naugracut — | Naugracut | |
| | Jesuat — — | Rajapour | |
| | Patna — — | Patna | |
| | Necbal — — | Necbal | |
| | Gore — — | Gore | |
| | Rotas — — | Rotas | |
| | The north-west division on the frontiers of Persia, and on the river of Indus | Soret — — | Jaganal |
| | | Jesselmere — — | Jesselmere |
| | | Tata, or Sinda — — | Tata |
| Bucknor — — | | Bucknor | |
| Multan — — | | Multan | |
| Haican — — | | Haican | |
| | Cabul — — | Cabul | |

246 INDIA WITHIN THE GANGES.

| Grand divisions. | Provinces. | Chief towns. |
|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------------|
| The middle division | Candish ——— | Medipour |
| | Berar ——— | Berar |
| | Chitor ——— | Chitor |
| | Ratipor ——— | Ratipor |
| | Narvar ——— | Narvar |
| | Gualcor ——— | Gualcor |
| | Agra — — — | Agra |
| | Delly — — — | DELLY, E. lon. 79. N. lat. 28. |
| | Lahor, or Pencah — | Lahor |
| | Hendowns — | Hendowns |
| | Cassimere ——— | Cassimere |
| Jengapour ——— | Jengapour | |
| Asmer, or Bando — | Asmer. | |

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes: and in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands and let them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable. The English, and consequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indostan, are commonly seized with some illness, such as flux or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, especially if the patients are abstemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

MOUNTAINS.] The most remarkable mountains are those of Caucasus and Naugracut, which divide India from Persia, Usbec Tartary, and Tibet, and are inhabited by Marattas, Afghans or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos. As to the mountains of Balagate, which run almost the whole length of India from north to south, they are so high that they stop the western monsoon, the rains beginning sooner on the Malabar coast than they do on the coast of Coromandel.

RIVERS.] These are the Indus and the Ganges, both of them known to the antients, and held in the highest esteem, and even veneration, by the modern inhabitants. Besides those rivers, many others water this country.

SEAS, BAYS AND CAPES.] These are the Indian ocean; the bay of Bengal; the gulph of Cambaya; the straits of Ramanakoel; cape Comorin and Diu.

INHABITANTS.] I have already made a general review of this great empire, and I have only to add to what I have said of their religion and sects, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahometan mendicants or beggars, who travel about practising the greatest austerities, but many of them are impostors. Their number is said to be 800,000. Another set of mendicants are the

the joghies, who are idolaters, and are supposed to be twelve millions in number, but all of them vagabonds, and lazy impostors, who live by amusing the credulous Gentoos with foolish fictions. The Banians, who are so called from their affected innocence of life, serve as brokers, and profess the Gentoos religion, or somewhat like it.

The Persees, or Parses, of Indostan, are originally the Gours, described in Persia, but are a most industrious people, particularly in weaving, and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be possessed of the works of Zoroaster, whom they call by various names, and which some Europeans think contain many particulars that would throw lights upon the ancient history both sacred and profane. This opinion is countenanced by the few parcels of those books that have been published; but some are of opinion that the whole is a modern imposture, founded upon sacred, traditional, and profane histories and religions.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the sports of the field. They affect shady walks and cool fountains, like other people in hot countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous music, both in wind and string instruments, and play at cards in their private parties. Their houses make no appearance, and those of the commonalty are poor and mean, and generally thatched, which renders them subject to fire; but the manufacturers chuse to work in the open air; and the insides of houses belonging to principal persons are commonly neat, commodious, and pleasant, nay many of them magnificent.

COMMERCE OF INDOSTAN.] I have already mentioned this article, as well as the manufactures of India; but the Mahometan merchants here carry on a trade that has not been described, I mean that with Mecca, in Arabia, from the western parts of this empire, up the Red-Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular species of vessels called junks, the largest of which, we are told, besides the cargoes, will carry 1700 Mahometan pilgrims to visit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyssinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they dispose of their cargoes for gold and silver; so that a Mahometan junk returning from this voyage is often worth 200,000 l.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER } These are pretty
BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } uncertain, especially
since the late revolutions of the empire.

Guzarat is a maritime province on the gulph of Cambaya, and one of the finest in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious

cious people. It is said to contain 35 cities. Amed-Abad is the capital of the province, where there is an English factory, and is said, in wealth, to vie with the richest towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues distant lies Surat, where the English have a flourishing factory. It was taken by them in the late war, but it is uncertain whether it is still in their possession.

The province of Agra is the largest in all Indostan, containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greatest city, and its castle the largest fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the English have none.

The city of Dehli, which is the capital of that province, is likewise the capital of Indostan. It is described as being a fine city, and containing the imperial palace, which is adorned with the usual magnificence of the East. Its stables formerly contained 12,000 horses, brought from Arabia, Persia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the season, as is often the case, these horses are said to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and sugar, and in the evening with rice-milk properly prepared.

Tatta, the capital of Sinda, is a large city; and it is said that a plague which happened in 1699 carried off above 80,000 of its manufacturers in silk and cotton. It is still famous for the manufacture of palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repose when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, 40 miles a day; 10 being usually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at first cost, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten shillings a month each, out of which they maintain themselves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Though the province of Multan is not very fruitful, yet it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their situation, are enabled to deal with the Persians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horses.

The province of Cassimere, being surrounded with mountains, is difficult of access, but when entered, it appears to be the paradise of the Indies. It is said to contain 100,000 villages, to be stored with cattle and game, without any beasts of prey. The capital (Cassimere) stands by a large lake; and both sexes, the women especially, are almost as fair as the Europeans, and are said to be witty, dexterous, and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor formerly made a great figure in the Indian history, and is still one of the largest and finest provinces in the Indies, producing the best sugars of any in Indostan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little of the provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, and Hallabas, that is not in common with the other provinces of Indostan, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who seem never to have been conquered, and though they submit to the moguls, live in an easy, independent state. In some of those provinces many of the European fruits, plants, and flowers, thrive as in their native soil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the most interesting to an English reader. It is esteemed to be the storehouse of the East-Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its soil consists of rice, sugar-canes, corn, sesamum, small mulberry, and other trees. Its callicoes, silks, salt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world; and provisions here are in vast plenty, and incredibly cheap, especially pullets, ducks, and geese. The country is intersected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce; and extends near 100 leagues on both sides the Ganges, being full of cities, towns, villages and castles.

In Bengal, the worship of the Gentoos is practised in its greatest purity; and their sacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagods or temples. The women, notwithstanding their religion, are said by some to be lascivious and enticing.

The principal English factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is called Fort William; it is situated on the river Hughly, the most westerly branch of the Ganges. The fort itself is said to be irregular, and untenable against disciplined troops; but the servants of the company have provided themselves with an excellent house, and most convenient apartments for their own accommodation. As the town itself may be now said to be in possession of the company, an English civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, has been introduced into it. It does not, however, seem to give general satisfaction, on account of the vast influence which the company has always over the magistrates, and many complaints from private persons have lately reached England.

In 1756, the Indian nabob, or viceroy, quarrelled with the company, and invested Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor, and some of the principal persons of the place, threw themselves, with their chief effects,

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on board the ships in the river ; they who remained, for some hours, bravely defended the place ; but their ammunition being expended, they surrendered upon terms. The soubah, a capricious, unfeeling tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governor's chief servant, and 145 British subjects, into a little but secure prison, called the Black-hole, a place about eighteen feet square, and shut up from almost all communication of free air. Their miseries during the night were inexpressible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrensy. Among those saved was Mr. Holwell himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe. The insensible tyrant returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had routed the English out of his dominions ; but the seasonable arrival of admiral Watson and colonel (now lord) Clive, put them once more, with some difficulty, in possession of the place ; and the war was concluded by the glorious battle of Plassey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the tyrant Suraja Dowla, in whose place Mhir Jasseir was advanced to the soubahship.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Patna or Makfudabad ; and Bannares, lying in the same province, is the Gentoo university, and celebrated for its sanctity.

Chandenagore, is the principal place possessed by the French in Bengal : it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though strongly fortified, furnished with a garrison of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken in the late war by the English admirals Watson and Pocock, and colonel Clive. Hugley, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richest of all Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well fortified factory. The search for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hugley, for about fifty miles farther. Dakka is said to be the largest city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. It contains an English and a Dutch factory. The other chief towns are Cassumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagur, and Maldo ; besides a number of other places of less note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

We know little concerning the province of Malva, which lies to the west of Bengal, but that it is as fertile as the other provinces, and that its chief city is Ratissor. The province of Kandish includes that of Berar and part of Orixa, and its capital is Brampur, so that it is of prodigious extent, and

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carries on a vast trade in chintzes, callicoes, and embroidered stuffs.

The above are the provinces belonging to the mogul's empire to the north of what is properly called the peninsula within the Ganges. Those that lie to the southward fall into the description of the peninsula itself.

HISTORY.] It is not at all to the credit of our East-India company's servants, that notwithstanding their long residence in Indostan, they differ in their accounts of the revolutions of that country. All we know for certain is, that Tamerlane made a deep impression upon this country, and that the present emperor pretends to reign in his right. The history of his immediate descendents has been variously represented, but all agree in the main that they were magnificent and despotic princes, that they committed their provinces, as has been already observed, to rapacious governors, or to their own sons, by which their empire was often miserably torn in pieces. At length, towards the middle of the last century, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngest among many sons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brethren, mounted the throne of Indostan, and may be considered as the real founder and legislator of the empire. He was a great and a politic prince, and the first who extended his dominion, though it was little better than nominal, over the peninsula within the Ganges, which is at present so well known to the English. He lived so late as the year 1707, and it is said that some of his great officers of state were alive in the year 1750. From what has been already said of this empire, Aurengzebe seems to have left too much power to the governors of his distant provinces, and to have been at no pains in preventing the effects of that dreadful despotism, which while in his hands preserved the tranquillity of his empire, but when it descended to his weak indolent successors, occasioned its overthrow.

In 1713, four of his grandsons disputed the empire, which, after a bloody struggle, fell to the eldest, Mauzo'din, who took the name of Jehandar Shah. This prince was a slave to his pleasures, and was governed by his mistress so absolutely, that his great omrahs conspired against him, and raised to the throne one of his nephews, who struck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whose name was Furrukhsir, was governed and at last enslaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who abused his power so grossly, that being afraid to punish them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately assassinated. They discovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in whose place they raised a grandson of Aurengzebe, by his daughter,

daughter, a youth of seventeen years of age, after imprisoning and strangling Furrukhsir. The young emperor proved disagreeable to the brothers, and being soon poisoned, they raised to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Indostan, whose ancestors had entered into stipulations, or what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field against the two brothers, but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil possession of the empire, but died in 1719. He was succeeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mohammed Shah, and entered into private measures with his great rajahs for destroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Nizam al Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is said, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himself against the brothers, and to proclaim himself soubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was assassinated by the emperor's order, who immediately advanced to Delhi to destroy the other brother; but he no sooner understood what had happened, than he proclaimed the sultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle ensued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious, and is said to have used his conquest with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the prison from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewise a prisoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement, but the emperor took possession of his vast riches. Seyd did not long survive his confinement; and upon his death, the emperor abandoned himself to the same course of pleasures that had been so fatal to his predecessors. As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed against the Marattas, whom he defeated, when they had almost made themselves masters of Agra and Dehli. He was confirmed in his soubahship, and was considered as the first subject in the empire. Authors, however, are divided as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shah, otherwise Kouli Khan, the Persian monarch, to invade Indostan. It is thought that he had intelligence of a strong party formed against him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have success, and at first wanted to make himself useful by opposing him. The success of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immense treasure which he carried from Indostan in 1739. Besides those treasures, he obliged the Mogul to surrender to him all the lands to the west of the rivers Attock and Synd, comprehending the provinces of Peyshor, Kabul, and Gagna, with many other

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rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almost equal in value to the crown of Persia itself.

This invasion cost the Gentoos 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, some accounts, and those too strongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible sum of two hundred and thirty-one millions sterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of those times. The most moderate say that Nadir's own share amounted to considerably above seventy millions. Be that as it will, the invasion of Nadir Shah may be considered as putting a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire in the house of Tamerlane. The history of it, since that time, is less known than that of Tamerlane itself. According to the best accounts, upon the retreat of Nadir Shah, who left the emperor in possession of his dignity, the Patans invaded his dominions; and so treacherous were the emperor's generals and ministry, that none of them would head an army against them, till the emperor's son, a youth of eighteen years of age, bravely undertook the command, punished the conspiracy that had been formed against his father, and completely defeated the invaders. During this campaign, the emperor was strangled by his vizier: but by a course of well-acted dissimulation, the young emperor, who was called Amet Shah, found means to put the conspirators to death, but soon after was driven from his throne by a fresh invasion of the Patans and Marattas. Some pretend that one Allum Geer was first proclaimed emperor, and then murdered by the same vizier, who raised another prince to the throne. Whether this Allum Geer is the same with Amet Shah is uncertain, as are the intermediate revolutions that followed. At present, the imperial dignity of Indostan is vested in Shah Zadah, who is universally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble, and he depends upon the protection of the English, whose interest it is to support him, as his authority is the best legal guarantee.

As to the government and constitution of Indostan, we must refer to what we have already observed. The emperor of Indostan, or great Mogul (so called from being descended from Tamerlane: the Mongul or Mogul Tartar) on his advancement to the throne, assumes some grand title; as, *The Conqueror of the World; the Ornament of the Throne, &c.* but he is never crowned.

THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.

| Granddivisions. | Provinces. | Chief towns. | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|--|-------------------|--------------------|
| The south-east coast of India, situate on the bay of Bengal, usually called the coast of Coromandel | Madura | Madura | | |
| | Tanjour | Tanjour | | |
| | East side of Bifnagar, or Carnate | | Trincombar, Danes | |
| | | | Negapatan, Dutch | |
| | | | Bifnagar | |
| Portanova, Dutch | | | | |
| Fort St. David, English | | | | |
| Pondicherry, } French | | | | |
| | | Conymere, } | | |
| | | Coblon | | |
| | | Sadrafapatan, Dutch | | |
| | | St. Thomas, Portuguese | | |
| | | Fort St. George, or Madras, E. lon. 80-32. N. lat. 13-11. English. | | |
| | | Pellicate, Dutch | | |
| | | Golconda | | |
| | | Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines | | |
| | | Muffulapatan, English and Dutch | | |
| | | Vizacapatan, English | | |
| | | Bimlipatan, Dutch | | |
| | | Orixa | | |
| | | West side of Bifnagar, or Carnate | | Orixa |
| | | | | Ballafore, English |
| | | | | Tegapatan, Dutch |
| Angengo, English | | | | |
| Cochin, Dutch | | | | |
| Callicut, } English | | | | |
| Tillicherry, } | | | | |
| | | Canannore, Dutch | | |
| | | Monguelore, } Dutch and | | |
| | | Bassilore } Portuguese | | |
| | | Raalconda, diamond mines. | | |
| | | Decan, or Viffapour | Cawar, English | |
| | | Goa, Portuguese | | |
| | | Rajapore, French | | |
| | | Dabal, English | | |
| | | Dundee, } Portuguese | | |
| | | Shoule, } | | |
| | | Bombay, isle and town, English, 19-18 N. lat. 73-6 E. lon. | | |
| | | Bassaim, } Portuguese | | |
| | | Salfette, } | | |

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| Grand divisions. | Provinces. | Chief towns. |
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| The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar | Cambaya, or Guzarat | Damon, Portuguese Surat, E. lon. 72-25. N. lat. 21-10 |
| | | Swalley Barak, English and Dutch Amedabat Cambaya Dicu, Portuguese. |

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND PRODUCE.] The chain of mountains already mentioned, running from north to south, renders it winter on one side of this peninsula, while it is summer on the other. About the end of June, a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which, with continual rains, last four months, during which time all is serene upon the coast of Coromandel (the western and eastern coasts being so denominated.) Towards the end of October, the rainy season, and the change of the monsoon begins on the Coromandel coast, which being destitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ships to remain there, during that time, and to this is owing the periodical returns of the English shipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coast. The air is naturally hot in this peninsula, but is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the sea, which last proves a great refreshment to the inhabitants of the coast. The produce of the soil is the same with that of the other part of the East-Indies. The like may be said of their quadrupeds, fish, fowl, and noxious creatures and insects.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of this part are more black in complexion, than those of the other peninsula of India, though lying nearer to the equator, which makes some suspect them to be the descendents of an ancient colony from Ethiopia. The greatest part of them have but a faint notion at present, of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Indostan, whose tribute from thence has been ever since the invasion of Shah Nadir, intercepted by their soubahs and nabobs, who now exercise an independent power in the government, though even Suraja Dowla was glad to receive a deputation from the emperor, now reigning, or his father; but besides those soubahs, and other imperial viceroys, many estates in this peninsula belong to rajahs or lords, who are the descendents of their old princes, and look upon themselves as being independent on the mogul, and his authority.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } From what

above, this peninsula is rather to be divided into great governments, or soubahships, than into provinces. One soubah often engrosses several provinces, and fixes the seat of his government, according to his own conveniency. I shall speak of those provinces, as belonging to the Malabar or Coromandel coast, the two great objects of English commerce in that country; and first, of the eastern, or Coromandel coast.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the southermost point of the peninsula. It is about the bigness of the kingdom of Portugal, and is said to be governed by a sovereign king, who has under him seventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax. The chief value of this kingdom seems to consist of a pearl fishery upon its coast. Tanjour is a little kingdom, lying to the east of Madura. The soil is fertile, and its prince, rich. Within it lies the Danish East-India settlement of Tranquebar, and the Dutch fortrefs of Negapatan, and the capital city is Tanjour.

The Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the English. It is bounded on the east by the bay of Bengal, on the north by the river Christina, which divides it from Golkonda; on the west by Visapur, or Vissapur, and, on the south, by the kingdoms of Messaur and Tanjour; being in length, from south to north, about 345 miles, and 276 in breadth from east to west. The capital of the Carnatic is Bissnagar, and the country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lies fort St. David's, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north, lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the East-Indies, but now demolished by the English, who took it in the late war. It was restored by the peace of Fontainbleau, in 1763.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the English East-India company's dominions in the East-Indies, and is distant eastward from London, about 4800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the situation of this fort. No pains have been spared by the company, in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexions of their several inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an English corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to mend the natural badness of its situation,

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which seems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, which are but a week's journey distant. Those mines are under the tuition of a mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasurement, and enclosing the contents by pallisadoes, all diamonds above a certain weight belong to the emperor. The district belonging to Madras, is of little value for its product, and must import its own provisions. 80,000 inhabitants of various nations, are said to be dependent upon Madras; but its safety consists in the superiority of the English by sea. It carries on a considerable trade with China, Persia, and Mocha.

The reader needs not be informed of the immense fortunes acquired by the English, upon this coast, within these twenty years. The governor of Madras has a council to assist him, and when he goes abroad, appears in vast splendor. The differences that now rage among the directors and proprietors of the company in England, prevent my saying any thing concerning the police of this government. The company has received all the encouragement and assistance the English parliament can give them, even to the introducing of martial law into their possessions. There seems, however, to be some fundamental errors in their constitution. The directors consider the riches acquired by their governors and other servants, as being plundered from the company, and of late they have sent out superintendents to controul their governors and overgrown servants, but with what success time must demonstrate. As this is a subject of the greatest importance, that ever perhaps occurred in the geography of a commercial country, the reader will indulge me in one or two reflections, as I am not to resume the subject.

The English East-India company, through the distractions of the Mogul empire, the support of our government, and the undaunted but fortunate successes of their military officers, have acquired so amazing a property in this peninsula, and in Indostan, that it is superior to the revenues of many crowned heads, and some of their own servants pretend, that when all their expences are paid, their clear revenue amounts to near two millions sterling, out of which they are to pay 400,000 l. annually, to the government, while they are suffered to enjoy their revenues. How that revenue is collected, or from whence it arises, is best known to the company, part of it however has been granted in property, and part of it is secured on mortgages, for discharging their expences in supporting the interests of their friends, the emperor, and the respective soubahs and nabobs they have assisted.

GANGES.

From what has been said to great govern- One soubah seat of his go- I shall speak of or Coromandel ce in that coun- coast.

ermost point of ne kingdom of eign king, who of them inde- m a tax. The a pearl fishery, lying to the s prince, rich, of Tranquebar, capital city is

known to the of Bengal, on s it from Gol- , and, on the our; being in s, and 276 in he Carnatic is ned healthful, upon the Coro- o the English, d of great im- h, lies Pondi- e East-Indies, it in the late eau, in 1763. e of Madras, 's dominions ondon, about of the situa- the company, n be brought- called, from e White and contains an Nothing has its situation, which

Be that as it may, this company exercises at present many rights appropriated to sovereignty, such as those of holding forts, coining money, and the like. Those powers are undoubtedly incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited company, and it became the dignity of the English government, to send out an officer of their own, (as they have done in the person of Sir John Lindsay) to take such measures with the Eastern princes and potentates, as may render the acquisitions of the company permanent and national.

Without entering into any disputes agitated of late between the directors and the government, the possibility of such a permanency and even extending our influence in India, is pretty evident. From what has been already said, the *Gentooes* are entirely passive in all the revolutions of their government. The *Moors*, or *Mahometans*, ignorant and treacherous as they are, appear to have no violent attachments to any religious principle, and are abject enough to live under any form of government, that their emperor shall prescribe; nor are they at present, when the English are his friends, in any condition to dispute their joint wills. These considerations manifest the wisdom of not driving them into desperate measures, and thereby effecting a union of their forces, which must prove fatal to the British interest there; and in any event must render it precarious, unless supported in the name, and by the authority of the British empire.

Polikat, lying to the north of *Madras*, belongs to the Dutch. We know little of the kingdom and capital of *Ikkari*. The celebrated *Heyder Ally*, with whom the company has lately made a peace, is said to be a native of the kingdom of *Mesſur*, which lies to the south-west of the *Carnatic*; and the Christians of the apostle *St. Thomas*, live at the foot of the mountains *Gatti*, that separate *Mesſur* from *Malabar*. I have already mentioned the kingdom of *Golkonda*, which besides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapness of its provisions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January. *Golkonda* is said to be subject to a prince, who, though tributary to the *Mogul*, is immensely rich, and can raise 100,000 men. The capital of his dominions is called *Bagnagar*, but the kingdom takes its name from the city of *Golkonda*. East-south-east of *Golkonda*, lies *Masulipatan*, where the English and Dutch have factories. The English have also factories at *Ganjam*, and *Vizigapatam*, on this coast; and the Dutch at *Narsipore*. The province of *Orixa*, from whence the English company draw great part of their revenues, lies to the north of *Golkonda*, extending in length

from east to west, about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed likewise by a tributary prince. In this province stands the idolatry temple of Jagaryunt, which they say is attended by 500 priests. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black stone, of about 4 or 500 weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to represent eyes, and the nose and mouth painted with vermilion.

The country of Dekan comprehends several large provinces; and some kingdoms, particularly those of Baglana, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Vifiapur. The truth is, the names, dependencies, and governments of those provinces, are extremely unsettled; they having been reduced by Aurengzebe, or his father, and subject to almost annual revolutions and alterations. Modern geographers are not agreed upon their situation and extent, but we are told, that the principal towns are Aureng-abad, and Dolt-abad, or Dowlet-abad; and that the latter is the strongest place in all Indostan. Near it lies the famous pagods of Elora, in a plain about two leagues square. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thousand figures that surround it, are said to be cut out of the natural rock, and to surpass all the other efforts of human art. Telenga lies on the east of Golkonda, and its capital Beder, contains a garrison of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province speak a language peculiar to themselves.

Baglana lies to the west of Telenga, and forms the smallest province of the empire; its capital is Mouler. The Portuguese territory begins here at the port of Daman, twenty-one leagues south of Surat, and extends almost twenty leagues to the north of Goa.

Vifiapur is a large kingdom tributary to the Mogul, but its particular extent is uncertain. The western part is called Konkan, which is intermingled with the Portuguese possessions. The king of Vifiapur is said to have a yearly revenue of six millions sterling, and to bring to the field 150,000 soldiers. His capital is of the same name, and his country very fruitful. The principal places on this coast are, Daman, Bassaim Trapor, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahpur, Dabul-Rajupur, Ghiria; and Vingurla. The Portuguese have lost several valuable possessions on this coast, and those which remain are on the decline.

Among the islands lying upon the same coast is that of Bombay, belonging to the English East-India company. Its harbour can conveniently hold 1000 ships at anchor. The island itself is about seven miles in length, and twenty in circumference, but its situation and harbour are its chief recommendations,

commendations, being destitute of almost all the conveniences of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built, and the climate was fatal to English constitutions, till experience, caution and temperance, taught them preservatives against its unwholesomeness. The best water there is preserved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy seasons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of stone. Many black merchants reside here. This island was part of the portion paid with the infant of Portugal, to Charles II. who gave it to the East-India company, and the island is still divided into three Roman-catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and what are called popish Mestizos and Canarins, the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese, and the other the aborigines of the country. The English have fallen upon methods to render this island and town, under all their disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable residence. The reader need scarcely be informed, that the governor and council of Bombay, have lucrative posts as well as the officers under them. The troops on the island, are commanded by English officers, and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and disciplined, are here, and all over the East-Indies, called Seapoys. The inhabitants of the island amount to near 60,000 of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmolested.

Near Bombay are several other islands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the most inexplicable antiquity, perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant of the natural size cut coarsely in stone, presents itself on the landing place, near the bottom of a mountain. An easy slope then leads to a stupendous temple, hewn out of the solid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end, are three gigantic figures, which have been multiplied by the blind zeal of the Portuguese. Besides the temple, are various images, and groupes on each hand cut in the stone; one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance of the judgment of Solomon; besides a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of resemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The island and city of Goa, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in the East-Indies, lies about thirty miles south of Vingurla. The island is about twenty-seven miles in compass. It has one of the finest and best fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a most superb settlement, and was

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THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES. 261

was surpassed either in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is said that the revenues of the Jesuits upon this island, equalled those of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the rest of the Portuguese possessions on this coast, are under a viceroy, who still keeps up the remains of the antient splendor of the government. The rich peninsula of Salzete, is dependant on Goa. Sunda lies south of the Portuguese territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the mogul. The English factory of Corwar, is one of the most pleasant and healthful of any upon the Malabar coast. Kanora lies about forty miles to the south of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its soil is famous for producing rice, that supplies many parts of Europe, and some of the Indies. The Kanorines are said generally to be governed by a lady, whose son has the title of rajah, and her subjects are accounted the bravest and most civilized of any in that peninsula, and remarkably given to commerce.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole south-west coast of the peninsula, yet it is confined at present to the country so called, lying on the west of cape Comorin, and called the Dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic, and the country itself is rich and fertile, but pestered with green adders, whose poison is incurable. It was formerly a large kingdom of itself. The most remarkable places in Malabar are Kannaamore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; Tillicheri, where the English have a small settlement, keeping a constant garrison of thirty or forty soldiers. Calicut, where the French and Portuguese have small factories, besides various other distinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the southermost part of this peninsula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the same garden, the two seasons of the year; the trees being loaded with blossoms and fruit on the one side, while on the other side they are stripped of all their leaves. This surprizing phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains so often mentioned, which traverse the whole peninsula from south to north. On the opposite sides of the Cape, the winds are constantly at variance; blowing from the west on the west side, and from the east on the eastern side.

Before I take my leave of India, it may be proper to observe, that in the little district of Cochin within Malabar, are to be found some thousands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manasseh, and to have records engraved on copper plates in Hebrew characters. They are said to be so poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. The like dis-

coveries of the Jews and their records have been made in China, and other places of Asia, which have occasioned various speculations among the learned.

P E R S I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | Degrees. |
|--------------|--|
| Length 1300 | } between { 44 and 70 east longitude. 25 and 44 north latitude. |
| Breadth 1100 | |

BOUNDARIES.] MODERN Persia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghistan, which divide it from Circassian Tartary, on the north-west; by the Caspian sea, which divides it from Russia, on the north; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Usbec Tartary, on the north-east; by India on the east, and by the Indian ocean, and the gulphs of Persia and Ormus, on the south; and by Arabia and Turkey on the west.

Modern Persia comprehends the ancient Hyrcania, Bactria, Susiana, Parthia, Media, and part of Assyria, Iberia, and Colchis. The modern divisions of Persia are extremely uncertain, and of little importance to the reader.

NAME.] Persia, according to the poets, derived its name from Persus, the son of Jupiter and Danae. Less fabulous authors, suppose it derived from Paras, which signifies a horseman, the Persians or Parthians, being always celebrated for their skill in horsemanship.

AIR.] In so extensive an empire this is very different. Those parts which border upon Caucasus and Daghistan, and the mountains near the Caspian sea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of those mountains which are commonly covered with snow. The air in the midland provinces of Persia is serene, pure, and exhilarating, but in the southern provinces it is hot, and sometimes communicates noxious blasts to the midland parts, which are so often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] Those vary like the air. The soil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary, and the Caspian sea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of mount Taurus, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life, are equalled by few countries. It produces wine and oil in plenty, fenna, rhubarb, and the finest of drugs. The fruits

are

are delicious, especially their dates, oranges, pistachio-nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden stuff; not to mention vast quantities of excellent silk; and the gulph of Bassora, formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts near Ispahan especially produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, the roses especially, they extract waters of a salubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia, are of a most exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture, to as great perfection as some nations in Europe, by transplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian *assa fetida* flows from a plant called *Hiltot*, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauces of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

MOUNTAINS.] These are Caucasus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghistan; and the vast collection of mountains called Taurus, and their divisions run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

RIVERS.] It has been observed, that no country, of so great an extent, has so few navigable rivers as Persia. The most considerable are those of the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which rise in or near the mountains of Ararat, and joining their streams, fall into the Caspian sea. Some small rivulets falling from the mountains, water the country, but their streams are so inconsiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even by boats. The Oxus can scarcely be called a Persian river, though it divides Persia from Uibec Tartary. Persia has the river Indus on the east, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the west.

WATER.] The scarcity of rivers in Persia, is joined to a scarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Persia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and above all, turquoise stones, which are found in Chorasan. Sulphur, salt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have been discovered near Tauris, and natural salt in the province of Carkmenia.

**POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } It is impossible to speak
MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND } with any certainty con-
DIVERSIONS. } cerning the population of
a country so little known as that of Persia. If we are to judge**

by the vast armies in modern as well as in ancient times, raised there, the numbers it contains must be very great. The Persians of both sexes are generally handsome, the men being fond of Georgian and Circassian women. Their complexions towards the south, are somewhat swarthy. The men shave their heads, but the young men suffer a lock of hair to grow on each side, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; but religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans, many of them cost twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, so that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of respect, even to the king. Their dress is very simple. Next to their skin they wear callico shirts, over them a vest, which reaches below the knee, girt with a sash, and over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their cloaths, however, are commonly very expensive, consisting of the richest furs, silks, muslin, cottons, and the like valuable stuffs, richly embroidered with gold and silver. They wear a kind of loose boots on their legs, and slippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expensive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their sash, and linen trowsers. The collars of their shirts and cloaths are open, so that their dress upon the whole is far better adapted for the purposes both of health and activity, than the long flowing robes of the Turks.

The dress of the women is not much different; their wear, as well as that of the men, is very costly, and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and washes.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent washings and ablutions, which are the more necessary, as they seldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner, upon fruits, sweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night, when they sup upon pilau, already described. They are temperate, but use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks, nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are great masters of ceremony towards their superiors, and so polite, that they accommodate Europeans who visit them with stools, that they may not be forced to sit cross-legged. They are so immoderately fond of tobacco, which they smoke through a tube fixed in water, so as to be cool in the mouth, that when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country, rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Persians are naturally fond of poetry, moral sentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and their national revolutions, have mingled the

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the native Persians with barbarous nations, and are said to have taught them dissimulation; but they are still pleasing and plausible in their behaviour, and in all ages they have been remarkable for hospitality.

The Persians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left, and are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and are wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuscripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible. Their great foible seems to be ostentation in their equipages and dresses; nor are they less jealous of their women than the Turks, and other eastern nations. They are fond of music, and take a pleasure in conversing in large companies; but their chief diversions are those of the field, hunting, hawking, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms, in all which they are very dexterous. They excel, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beasts, and privately play at games of chance.

Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Persia, as well as through all Tartary; and travellers or merchants, who intend to stay some time in any city, commonly apply to the cadec, or judge, for a wife during the time he proposes to stay. The cadec, for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honest, and free from diseases, and he becomes surety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Russian embassy to Persia declares, that amongst thousands, there has not been one instance of their dishonesty, during the time agreed upon.

RELIGION.] The Persians are Mahometans of the sect of Ali, for which reason the Turks, who follow the succession of Omar and Abu Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if possible, in some things more fantastical and sensual than that of the Turks, but in many points it is mingled with some bramin superstitions. When they are taxed by the Christians with drinking strong liquors, as many of them do, they answer very sensibly, "You Christians whore and get drunk, though you know you are committing sins, which is the very case with us." To enumerate their superstitions, fasts, and ceremonies, would require a volume, which, when read, could communicate neither instruction nor entertainment. Having mentioned the bramins, the comparison between them and the Persian guebres or gours, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the antient magi, the followers of Zoroaster, may be highly worth a learned disquisition: that both of them held originally pure and simple ideas of a supreme Being, may be easily proved, but the Indian bramins and

parfes ac use the gours, who still worship the fire, of having sensualized those ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combustible ground, about ten miles distant from Baku, a city in the north of Persia, is the scene of the guebres devotions. It must be admitted, that this ground is impregnated with very surprising inflammatory qualities, and contains several old little temples, in one of which the guebres pretend to preserve the sacred flame of the universal fire, which rises from the end, and a large hollow cane stuck into the ground, resembling a lamp burning, with very pure spirits. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the gours, who were banished out of Persia, by Shah Abbas. Their sect, however, is said to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Persians and the Romans, seem early to have driven the ancient Christians into Persia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many sects are found, that evidently have Christianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them called souffees, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the moral duties. The Sabeen Christians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mahometanism, and are numerous towards the Persian Gulph. I have already mentioned the Armenian and Georgian Christians, who are very numerous in Persia.

I have been the more explicit on the head of religion, as the present race of Persians are said to be very cool in the doctrines of Mahomet, owing chiefly to their ignorance of all religion, and their late wars with the Turks. It has therefore been thought by some writers, that great advantages, in point of commerce, may be derived from this indifference in matters of religion, if the natives should be properly supported by the Christian powers.

[LANGUAGE.] It has been disputed among the learned, whether the Arabs had not their language from the Persians; but this chiefly rests on the great intermixture of Arabic words in the Persian language, and the decision seems to be in favour of the Arabs. The common people, especially towards the southern coasts of the Caspian sea, speak Turkish, and the Arabic probably was introduced into Persia, under the califate, when learning flourished in those countries. The learned Persians have generally written in the Arabic, and people of quality among them have adopted it as the modish language, as we do the French. The pure Persian is said to be spoken in the southern parts, on the coast of the Persian gulph, and in Ispahan, but many of the provinces speak a barbarous mix-

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ture of the Turkish, Russian, and other languages. Their Pater-Noster is of the following tenour: *Ei Padere ma kib der ofmoni; pak bashed mam tu; bayayed padshahi tu; jebvod chavâsle tu benzjunâuki; der ofmon niz derz:ân; bôh mârâ jmrour nân kefâf rouz mara; wadargudfar mara konâhan mazjunankibma niz mig sarim ormân mara; wader ozmajfeh mine-dâzzmâra; likin chalus kun mara ez efchevir.* Amen.

[LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for both, and their poets renowned all over the east. At present their learning is merely mechanical, nor do they even understand the Koran, which they read in Arabic. Their boasted skill in astronomy is now reduced to a mere smattering in that science, and terminates in judicial astrology; so that no people in the world are more superstitious than the Persians. The learned profession in greatest esteem among them is that of medicine, which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be administered in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer, which often defeats the ends of the prescription. It is said, however, that the Persian physicians are acute and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no strangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country, as equally rare are many other diseases that are fatal in other places, such as the gout, the stone, the head-ach, the tooth-ach, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore pretty much circumscribed, so that they are very ignorant in surgery, which is exercised by barbers, whose chief knowledge of it is in letting blood, for they trust the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The monuments of
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } antiquity in Persia,
are more celebrated for their magnificence and expence, than their beauty or taste. No more than nineteen columns which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Persepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and composed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Persia, but void of that elegance and beauty, that is displayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Persia are stupendous works, being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with sculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar to be seen at Ispahan, sixty feet high, consisting of the skulls of beasts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the suppression of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect such a column of human skulls, but upon the submission

submission of the rebels, he performed his vow by substituting those of brutes, each of the rebels furnishing one.

The baths near Gombroon, work such cures, that they are esteemed among the natural curiosities of Persia. The springs of the famous Naphtha, near Baku, are mentioned often in natural history for their surprizing qualities; but the chief of the natural curiosities in this country, is the burning phenomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND } The houses of men of quality
PUBLIC EDIFICES. } in Persia, are in the same taste with those of the Asiatic Turks already described. They are seldom above one story high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumsy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houses being built apart. Few of them have chimnies, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly consists of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which serve them likewise as coverlits, with carpets under them.

Ispahan or Spahawn, the capital of Persia, is seated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which supplies it with water. It is said to be twelve miles in circumference. The streets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amusement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houses, where they spend their summer evenings, and different families associate together. The royal square is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth, and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Ispahan 160 mosques, 1800 caravanferas, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine squares, streets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to shade and better accommodate the people. This capital is said formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, so that we may easily suppose, that it has lost great part of its ancient magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houses were inhabited.

Schiras lies about 200 miles to the south of Astracan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers, fruits, and wines of which are incomparable. The vines of Schiras are reckoned the best of any in Persia. This town is the capital of Fars, the ancient Persia, and contains a kind of a college for the study of eastern learning. It contains an uncommon number of mosques, is adorned by many noble buildings,

buildings, but its streets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houses are inhabited.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Persian Gulph, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The English, and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Persians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which set out from various inland cities of Asia, under the convoy of guards.

MOSQUES AND BAGNIOS.] I thought proper to place them here under a general head, as their form of building is pretty much the same all over the Mahometan countries.

Mosques are religious buildings, square, and generally of stone; before the chief gate there is a square court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whose roof is supported by marble pillars. Those galleries serve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the mosque. About every mosque there are six high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. These towers, as well as the mosques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence, instead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter the mosque, nor can a man with his shoes or stockings on. Near most mosques is a place of entertainment for strangers during three days, and the tomb of the founder, with conveniencies for reading the Koran, and praying for the souls of the deceased.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well constructed for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but oftener circular, built of white well polished stone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the first for dressing and undressing; the second contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholesome; though to those not accustomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and stretches his limbs as if he was dislocating every bone in the body; all which exercises are, in those inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon, when all male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and when coming out of the bath display their finest cloaths.

I might here attempt to describe the eastern seraglios or harems, the womens apartments; but from the most credible accounts, they are contrived according to the taste and convenience of the owner, and divided into a certain number of apartments,

apartments, which are seldom or never entered by strangers; and there is no country where women are so strictly guarded and confined as among the great men in Persia.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Persians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world in silk, woolen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in these, join fancy, taste and elegance, to richness, neatness, and shew, and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dying excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroideries and horse furniture are not to be equalled, nor are they ignorant of the pottery, and window glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artists, which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia. Their jewelers and goldsmiths are clumsy workmen, and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpressible disadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them slaves to their kings, who often engross either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That between the English and other nations, by the gulph of Ormus at Gombroon, was the most gainful they had, but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in, have ruined their commerce. The great scheme of the English in trading with the Persians through Russia, promised vast advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto answered the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Peterburgh is not fond of suffering the English to establish themselves upon the Caspian sea, the navigation of which is now possessed by the Russians; but nothing can be said with certainty on that head, till the government of Persia is in a more settled condition than it is at present.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Both these are extremely precarious, as resting in the breast of a despotic and often capricious monarch. The Persians however had some fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindness likewise was a disqualification for the royal succession. In other respects the king's will was a law for the people. The instances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practised by the Mahometan kings of Persia, are almost incredible, especially during the two last centuries. The reason given to the Christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, the greatest and most polite among them, was, that the Persians were

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such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they coul' not be governed, without the exercise of exemplary cruelties. The favourites of the prince, female, as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the smallest disobedience to their will, is attended with immediate death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility, so that the respect due to every man, on account of his high station, expires with himself. The king has been known to prefer a younger son to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

REVENUES.] The crown claims one-third of the cattle, corn and fruits of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No rank, or condition of Persians, is exempted from severe taxations and services. The governors of provinces have particular lands assigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops, and the crown lands defray the expences of the court, king's household, and great officers of state; after saying thus much, the reader cannot doubt that the revenues of the Persian kings, or as they are called Sophis, were prodigious, but nothing can be said with any certainty in the present distracted state of that country. Even the water that is let into fields and gardens is subject to a tax, and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a head.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This consisted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raised bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but according to the modern histories of Persia, they are easily recruited in case of a defeat. The Persians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ships of war, until Kouli Khan built a royal navy, but since his death we hear no more of their fleet.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Persian monarch are a lion couchant looking at the rising sun. His title is Shah, or the Disposer of Kingdoms. Shah or Khan, and Sultan, which he assumes likewise, are Tartar titles. To acts of state the Persian monarch does not subscribe his name, but the grant runs in this manner, viz. This act is given by him whom the universe obeys.

HISTORY.] All ancient historians mention the Persian monarchs and their grandeur, and no empire has undergone a greater variety of governments. It is here sufficient to say, that the Persian empire succeeded the Assyrian or Babylonian, and that Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Christ; and restored the Israelites, who had been captive at Babylon,

Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the person of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Christ. When Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, their posterity were conquered by the Romans. These last, however, never fully subdued Persia, and the natives had princes of their own, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself, but were subdued by the famous Tamerlane, whose posterity were supplanted by a doctor of law, the ancestor of the Sophi family, and pretended to be descended from Mahomet himself. His successors, though some of them were valiant and politic, proved in general to be a disgrace to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance, and indolence, which brought them into such disrepute with their subjects, barbarous as they were, that Hascin, a prince of the Sophi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himself was by Esref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the representative of the Sophi family, had escaped from the rebels, and assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during the late rebellions. At last the secret ambition of Nadir broke out, and after assuming the name of Tahmas Kouli Khan, and pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded, he rebelled against his sovereign, made him a prisoner, and, it is supposed, put him to death.

This usurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir. The history of his expedition into Indostan, and the amazing booty he made there, has been treated of in the description of that country. It has been remarked, that he brought back an inconsiderable part of his booty from India, losing great part of it upon his return by the Marattas and accidents. He next conquered Usbec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghestan Tartars, whose country he found to be inaccessible. He beat the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to strike terror into all his subjects by the most cruel executions. His conduct became so intolerable, that it was thought his brain was touched; and he was assassinated in his own tent, partly in self-defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, started up; but the fortunate candidate was Kerim Khan, who was crowned at Tauris in 1763, and, according to the latest accounts, still keeps possession of the throne.

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SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
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| Length | 1300 | } between { | 35 and 60 east longitude. |
| Breadth | 1200 | | 12 and 30 north latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Turkey, on the north; by the gulphs of Persia or Bassora, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, south; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the west.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------|---|
| 1. Arabia Petraea, N. W. | { — — — } | { SUEZ, E. lon. 33-27. N. lat. 29-50. |
| 2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle. | { Haggiaz or Mecca } | { MECCA, E. lon. 43- 40. N. lat. 21-20. Siden Medina Dhafar |
| | { Tehama — — } | { — — — — — } |
| | { Mocho — — — } | { MOCHO, E. lon. 44-4. N. lat. 13-45. Sibit |
| 3. Arabia Felix, S. E. | { Hadramut — — } | { Hadramut |
| | { Casséen — — — } | { Casséen |
| | { Segur — — — — } | { Segur |
| | { Oman or Muscat — — } | { Muscat |
| | { Jamama — — — } | { Jamama |
| | { Bahara — — — } | { Elcalf. |

NAME.] It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its antient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally said, signifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the Desert. These names justly belong to the Arabians, for they seldom let any merchandize pass thro' the country without extorting something from the owners, if they do not rob them.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petraea, east of the Red-Sea, and those called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

RIVERS, SEAS, GULPHS, AND CAPES.] There are few fountains, springs, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the north-east limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulphs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Mussledon.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, and PRODUCE.] As a considerable part of this country lies under the Torrid Zone, and the Tropic of Cancer passes over Arabia Felix, the air is excessive dry and hot, and the country is subject to hot poisonous winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal, especially to strangers. The soil, in some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and sometimes form mountains, by which whole caravans have been buried or lost. In these deserts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, says Dr. Shaw, are no pastures clothed with flocks, nor vallies standing thick with corn; here are no vineyards or olive-yards; but the whole is a lonesome desolate wilderness, no other ways diversified than by plains covered with sand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day-time. The southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea coast, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, frankincense, spikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamum, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a small quantity of corn and wine. But this country is most famous for its coffee and its dates, which last are found scarce any where in such perfection as here and in Persia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS.] The most useful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by providence for traversing the dry and parched deserts of this country, for they are so formed, that they can throw up the liquor from their stomach into their throat, by which means they can travel six or eight days without water. The camels usually carry 800 weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to rest, and in due time rise with their load. The dromedary is a small camel that will travel many miles a day. It is an observation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will smell it at a distance, and set up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horses are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of those

those in England. They are only fit for the saddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their swiftness and high mettle.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } The Arabians, like most of
CUSTOMS, AND DRESS. } the nations of Asia, are of a middle stature, thin, and of a swarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are swift of foot, excellent horsemen, and are said to be a brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, since they became acquainted with fire-arms, good marksmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds, as they have ever done since they became a nation.

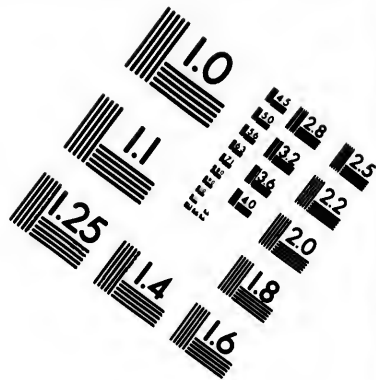
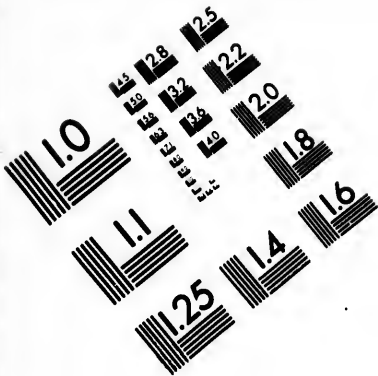
The Arabians in general are such thieves by nature, that travellers and pilgrims, who are led thither from all nations thro' motives of devotion or curiosity, are struck with terror on their approaches towards the Deserts. Those robbers, headed by a captain, traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, assault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that so late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 persons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a Turkish army. On the sea coast they are mere pirates, and make prize of every vessel they can master of whatever nation.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue shirt, tied about them with a white sash or girdle; and some of them have a vest of furs or sheep-skins over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them go almost naked; but, as in the eastern countries, the women are so wrapped up, that nothing can be discerned but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of flesh, except that of hogs; and prefer the flesh of camels, as we prefer venison, to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and like them refuse such fish as have no scales. Coffee and tea, water, and sherbet made of oranges water and sugar, is their usual drink; they have no strong liquors.

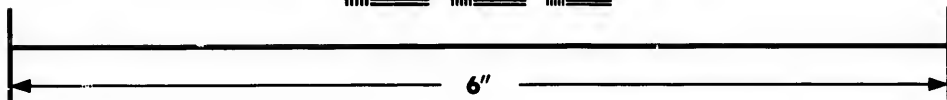
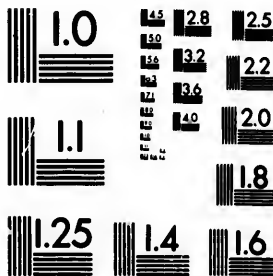
RELIGION.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mahomet their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs are still pagans, but the people in general profess Mahometanism.

LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.] Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarce a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language





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used in the three Arabias is the Arabesk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the East, from Egypt to the court of the great mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is said to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the East accounted the richest, most energetic and copious language in the world, is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin is amongst Europeans, and used by Mahometans in their worship; for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other: they look upon it to have been the language of Paradise, and think no man can be master of it without a miracle, as consisting of several millions of words. The books which treat of it say, they have no fewer than a thousand terms to express the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of a *lion*. The Pater-noster in the Arabic is as follows.

Abuna elladhi fi-ssamwat; jethkaddas esmâc; tati malacutac: taouri maschiatac, cama fi-ssama; kedhalec ala lardh aating ehözzena kefatna iaum beiaum; wagfor lena donubena, wachataina, cama nogfor nachna lemen aca doina; walâ tadalhcbalna sibajarib; laken mejjina me nnescherir. Amen.

CHIEF CITIES, CURIOSITIES, } What is called the Desert
AND ARTS. } of Sinai, is a beautiful

plain near nine miles long and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-east, but to the southward is closed by some of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make such encroachments upon the plain as to divide it in two, each so capacious as to be sufficient to receive the whole camp of the Israelites.

From Mount Sinai may be seen Mount Horeb, where Moses kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he saw the burning bush. On those mountains are many chapels and cells, possessed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jerusalem, pretend to shew the very spot where every miracle or transaction recorded in scripture happened.

The chief cities in Arabia are Mocho, Aden, Muschat and Suez, where most of the trade of this country is carried on; but those of Mecca, which is the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deserve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, is a mosque so glorious that it is generally counted the most magnificent of any temple in the Turkish dominions: its lofty roof being raised in fashion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, make a delightful appearance, and are conspicuous at a great distance. The
mosque

mosque hath a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the finest gildings and tapestry. The number of pilgrims who yearly visit this place is almost incredible, every mussulman being obliged by his religion to come hither once in his life time, or send a deputy.

At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red-Sea, the city to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a stately mosque, supported by 400 pillars, and furnished with 300 silver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the Most Holy by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue, which the bashaw of Egypt, by order of the grand signior, renews every year. The camel which carries it derives a sort of sanctity from it, and is never to be used in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden crescent, so curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones, that it is esteemed a master-piece of great value. Thither the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

GOVERNMENT.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are stiled xerifs and imans, both of them including the offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the califs of the Saracens, the successors of Mahomet. These monarchs appear to be absolute, both in spirituals and temporals; the succession is hereditary, and they have no other laws than those found in the Koran and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe subjection to the Turks, and are governed by bashaws residing among them; but it is certain they receive large gratuities from the grand signior for protecting the pilgrims that pass through their country from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no standing regular militia, but the kings command both the persons and the purses of their subjects as the necessity of affairs require.

HISTORY.] The history of this country in some measure differs from that of all others: for as the slavery and subjection of other nations make a great part of their history, that of the Arabs is intirely composed of their conquests or independence. The Arabs are descended of Ismael, of whose posterity it was foretold, that they should be invincible, "have their hands against every man, and every man's hands against theirs." They are at present, and have remained from the remotest ages, during the various conquests of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction.

Toward the north, and the sea-coasts of Arabia, indeed the inhabitants are kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the southern and inland parts, acknowledge themselves for subjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harass and annoy all strangers who come into their country. The conquests of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their history, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. These, as well as their religion, began with one man, whose character forms a very singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of that division of Arabia, which, for the luxuriance of its soil, and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been esteemed the loveliest and sweetest region of the world, and is distinguished by the epithet of Happy. He was born in the sixth century, in the reign of Justinian XI. emperor of Constantinople. Though descended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, Mahomet was endowed with a subtle genius, like those of the same country, and possessed an enterprize and ambition peculiar to himself, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed, in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, upon whose death he married his widow, Cadiga, and by her means came to be possessed of great wealth and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the East, he had observed the vast variety of sects in religion, whose hatred against each other was strong and inveterate, while at the same time there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully laid hold of these particulars, by means of which, and by addressing himself to the love of power, riches, and pleasure, passions universal among men, he expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been established. In this design he was assisted by a Sergian monk, whose libertine disposition had made him forsake his cloister and profession, and engage in the service of Cadiga, with whom he remained as a domestic when Mahomet was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified, by his great learning, for supplying the defects which his master, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, must have obstructed the execution of his design. It was necessary, however, that the religion they proposed to establish should have a divine sanction; and for this purpose Mahomet turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often subject to fits of the epilepsy, a

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disease which those whom it afflicts are desirous to conceal; Mahomet gave out therefore that these fits were trances, into which he was miraculously thrown by God Almighty, and during which he was instructed in his will, which he was commanded to publish to the world. By this strange story, and by leading a retired, abstemious, and austere life, he easily acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the numbers and enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet, sent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it. As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his system so narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthusiastic, was enlarged by travelling into distant lands, whose manners and religion he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that the system he established should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. The eastern countries were at this time strongly infected with the heresy of Arius, who allowed the prophetic office, but denied the divinity of Jesus Christ. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into these corners of the world from the persecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of these countries were pagans. These, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and like men whose religious principle is weak, had given themselves over to pleasure and sensuality, or to the acquisition of riches, in order to be the better able to indulge in the gratification of sense, which, together with the doctrine of predestination, composed the sole principles of their religion and philosophy. Mahomet's system was exactly suited to these three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moses and Jesus Christ were the most eminent; but the endeavours of these had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now sent his last and greatest prophet, with a commission more ample than what Moses or Christ had been entrusted with. He had commanded him not only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end to establish a kingdom upon earth which should propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had designed utter ruin and destruction to those who should refuse to submit to him; but to his faith-

ful followers, had given the spoils and possessions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradise of all sensual enjoyments, especially those of love; that the pleasures of such as died in propagating the faith, would be peculiarly intense, and vastly transcend those of the rest. These, together with the prohibition of drinking strong liquors (a restraint not very severe in warm climates) and the doctrine of predestination, were the capital articles of Mahomet's creed. They were no sooner published, than a vast many of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the priest we formerly mentioned, and compose a book called the Koran, or Alkoran, by way of eminence, as we say the Bible, which means The Book. The person of Mahomet, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; so that the greater part of them were sufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a design to cut him off; but Mahomet getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Talmachi, or the city of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to custom, greatest at a distance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622d year of Christ, the forty-fourth year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of his ministry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time, and the æra is called in Arabic, Hegira, i. e. the Flight.

Mahomet, by the assistance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom his insinuation and address daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at least to an acquiescence in his doctrines. The speedy propagation of his system among the Arabians was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt and the East, who were previously disposed to it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forsook their ancient faith, and became Mahometans. In a word, the contagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Persia; and Mahomet, from a deceitful hypocrite, became the most powerful monarch in his time. He died in 629, leaving two branches of his race, both esteemed divine among their subjects. These were the caliphs of Persia and of Egypt, under the last of which Arabia was included. The former of these turned their arms to the East, and made conquests of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and under the name of Saracens or Moors (which they obtained because they entered Europe from Mauritania, in Africa, the country of the Moors) reduced

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most of Spain, France, Italy, and the islands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the successors of that impostor spread their religion and conquests over the greatest part of Asia, Africa, and Europe; and they still give law to a very considerable part of mankind.

The INDIAN and ORIENTAL ISLANDS are,

THE JAPAN ISLANDS, which together form what has been called the empire of Japan, and are governed by a most despotic prince, who is sometimes called emperor and sometimes king. They are situated about 150 miles east of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41st degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of east longitude. The chief town is Jeddo, in the 141st degree of east longitude, and the 36th of north latitude. The soil and productions of the country are pretty much the same with those of China; and the inhabitants are famous for their lacquer ware, known by the name of Japan. The islands themselves are very inaccessible, through their high rocks and tempestuous seas; they are subject to earthquakes, and have some volcanos. I have already mentioned the circumstance of the Dutch expelling the Portuguese from this gainful trade. The Japanese themselves are the grossest of all idolators, and so irreconcilable to Christianity, that it is commonly said the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themselves to be no Christians, and humour the Japanese in the most absurd superstitions. Notwithstanding all this compliance, the natives are very shy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch, and Nanghazal, in the island of Ximo, is the only place where they are suffered to trade. Authors pretend to give us very particular accounts of the inhabitants, customs, and manners of those islanders, their soil, commodities, and trade; but their information conveys little instruction, and the whole subsists on a precarious foundation. All we know for certain is, that notwithstanding their superstition and ignorance, the natives are a most industrious penetrating people; that they excel the Chinese themselves in the manufactures that are common to both countries, and at least equal them in husbandry and the arts of life.

The LADRONE ISLANDS, of which the chief town is said to be Guam, east longitude 140, north latitude 14; they

they are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pillering qualities. We know nothing of them worth a particular mention, excepting that lord Anson landed upon one of them (Tinian) where he found great refreshment for himself and his crew.

FORMOSA is likewise an oriental island. It is situated to the east of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, beginning at the south coast, and ending at the north. This is a very fine island, and abounds with all the necessaries of life. That part of the island which lies to the west of the mountains belongs to the Chinese, who consider the inhabitants of its eastern part as savages, though they are said to be a very inoffensive people. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are the same with the Chinese already described. The Chinese have likewise made themselves masters of several other islands in these seas, of which we scarcely know the names; that of Ainan, is between sixty and seventy leagues long, and between fifty and sixty in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a shy, cowardly people, and live in the most unwholesome part of the island, the coast and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being possessed by the Chinese.

The PHILIPPINES, of which there are 1100 in number, lying in the Chinese sea, (part of the Pacific Ocean) 300 miles south-east of China, of which Manilla or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintudos, or painted people, and Mestres, a mixture of all these. The property of the islands belong to the king of Spain, they having been discovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. Their situation is such, between the eastern and western continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as all the islands and places of the East-Indies. Two ships from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the necessaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Venison of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, sheep, goats, and a particular large species of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The nest of the bird saligan affords that dissolving jelly which is so voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive surprizingly in those islands. If a sprig of an orange or lemon tree is planted there, it becomes within the year a fruit-

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fruit-bearing tree; so that the verdure and luxuriancy of the soil is almost incredible. The tree amēt supplies the natives with water; and there is also a kind of cane, which if cut yields fair water enough for a draught, of which there is plenty in the mountains, where water is most wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the distance of three leagues, and defended by the castle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the English under general Draper and admiral Cornish, who took it by storm, and humanely suffered the archbishop, who was the Spanish viceroy at the same time, to ransom the place for about a million sterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerously disowned by him and the court of Spain, so that great part of the ransom is still unpaid. The Spanish government is settled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other islands, particularly Mindanao, the largest next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call sultans. The sultan of Mindanao is a Mahometan.

Upon the whole, though these islands are enriched with all the profusion of nature, yet they are subject to most dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the soil is pestered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whose poisons kill almost instantaneously. Some of their mountains are volcanos.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the SPICE or CLOVE ISLANDS. These are not out of sight of each other, and lie all within the compass of twenty-five leagues to the south of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of east longitude, and between one degree south, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. Those islands produce neither corn nor rice, so that the inhabitants live upon a bread made of sago. Their chief produce consists of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vast quantities, which are monopolized by the Dutch with so much jealousy, that they destroy the plants lest the natives should sell the supernumerary spices to other nations. Those islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, subordinate to the Dutch. The latter, however, if at war with England, might be easily dispossessed, and their possession of them at this time is precarious, when they differ with those princes. Ternate is the largest of those islands, though no more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria, and another, called Fort Orange, in Machiam.

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The **BANDA**, or **NUTMEG ISLANDS**, are situated between 127 and 128 degrees east longitude, and between four and five south latitude, comprehending the islands of Lantor, the chief town of which is Lantor, Poleron, Rosinging, Pooloway, and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch on those islands, are those of Revenge and Nassau. The nutmeg, covered with the mace, grows on those islands only, and they are entirely subject to the Dutch. In several islands that lie near Banda and Amboyna, the nutmeg and clove would grow, because, as naturalists tell us, birds, especially doves and pigeons, swallow the nutmeg and clove whole, and void them in the same state; which is one of the reasons why the Dutch declare war against both birds and their wild plantations. The great nutmeg harvest is in June and August.

AMBOYNA. This island, taken in a large sense, is one, and the most considerable, of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is situated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degree of south latitude, and 120 leagues to the eastward of Batavia. Amboyna is about seventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garrison of 7 or 800 men, besides small forts, who protect their clove plantations. It is well known that when the Portuguese were driven off this island, the trade of it was carried on by the English and Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter in first torturing and then murdering the English, and thereby engrossing the whole trade, and that of Banda, can never be forgotten, for it must be transmitted as a memorial of Dutch infamy to all posterity. This tragical event happened in 1622, and is still unrevenged.

The island of **C E L E B E S**, or **M A C A S S A R**, is situated under the equator, between the island of Borneo and the Spice Islands, at the distance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. This island, notwithstanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief product is pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the study of poisons, with a variety of which nature has furnished them. The Dutch have a fortification on this island, but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom resides in the town of Macassar. In this, and indeed in almost all the Oriental islands, the inhabitants live in houses built on large posts, which are accessible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their security against venomous animals. They are said to be hospitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry

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carry on a large trade with the Chinese; and if their chiefs were not perpetually at war with each other, they might easily drive the Dutch from their island. Their port of Jampoden is the most capacious of any in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewise fortified GILOLO and CERAM, two other spice islands lying under the equator, and will sink any ships that attempt to traffic in those seas.

The SUNDA ISLANDS. These are situated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of east longitude, and between eight degrees north and eight degrees south latitude, comprehending the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lamboe, Banca, &c. The three first, from their great extent and importance, require to be separately described.

BORNEO is said to be 800 miles long and 700 broad, and is therefore thought to be the largest island in the world. The inland part of the country is marshy and unhealthy, and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The soil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphire, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ourang-outang, one of which was dissected by Dr. Tyson at Oxford, is a native of this country, and is thought of all irrational beings, to resemble a man the most. The original inhabitants are said to live in the mountains, and make use of poisoned darts, but the sea coast is governed by Mahometan princes; the chief port of the island is Benjar-Masseen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the east, and Java on the south-east, from which it is divided by the straits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees, and upwards, north-west of it, and five on the south-east; and is 1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This island produces so much gold, that it is thought to be the Ophir mentioned in the scriptures; but its chief trade with the Europeans lies in pepper. The English East-India company have two settlements here, Bencoolen and Fort-Marlborough, from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Achen is the chief of the Mahometan princes who possess the sea coasts. The interior parts are governed by pagan princes; and the natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the same with those of the adjacent islands.

The greatest part of JAVA belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude

latitude of six degrees south, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furnished with one of the finest harbours in the world. The town itself is built in the manner of those in Holland, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and surrounded by regular fortifications; but its suburbs are said to be ten times more populous than itself. The government here is a mixture of Eastern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attended by his guards and officers, and with a splendor superior to that of any European potentate, excepting upon solemn occasions. The city is as beautiful as it is strong, and its fine canals, bridges, and avenues, render it a most agreeable residence. The description of it, its government, and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the suburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almost every nation in the world; the Chinese residing in this island being computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarously massacred, without the smallest offence that ever was proved upon them, in 1740. This massacre was too unprovoked and detestable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, sent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of since. A Dutch garrison of three thousand men constantly resides at Batavia, and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the island and the neighbourhood of the city. Their government is admirably well calculated to prevent the independency either of the civil or military power; and England itself would find it difficult to shake that republican empire.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR islands. These islands lie at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, and furnish provisions, consisting of tropical fruits and other necessaries, for the ships that touch there. They are otherwise too inconsiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by a harmless, inoffensive, but idolatrous people.

CEYLON. This island, tho' not the largest, is thought to be by nature the richest and finest island in the world. It is situated in the Indian Ocean, near cape Comorin, the southern extremity of the Hither Peninsula of India, being separated from the coast of Coromandel by a narrow strait, and is 250 miles long and 200 broad. The natives call it, with some shew of reason, the terrestrial paradise; and it produces, besides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, silk, tobacco, ebony, musk, crystal, salt-petre, sulphur, lead, iron, steel, copper, be-

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sides cinnamon, gold, and silver, and all kinds of precious stones, except diamonds. All kinds of fowls and fish abound here. Every part of the island is well wooded and watered, and besides some curious animals peculiar to itself, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, especially if spotted; but several noxious animals, such as serpents and ants, are likewise found here. The chief commodity of the island, however, is its cinnamon, which is by far the best in all Asia. Though its trees grow in great profusion, yet the best is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the chief settlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle of the country is mountainous and woody, so that the rich and beautiful vallies are left in the possession of the Dutch, who have in a manner shut up the king in his capital city, Candy, which stands on a mountain in the middle of the island, so that he has scarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in the riches of his own dominions. The descendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinglases, who, though idolaters, value themselves upon maintaining their ancient laws and customs. They are in general a sober inoffensive people, and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portuguese, and Dutch.

It may be here proper to observe, that the cinnamon-tree, which is a native of this island, has two, if not three barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the best; and the body of the tree, which when stripped is white, serves for building and other uses. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of this delicious island, to defend them against the Portuguese, whom they expelled, and have monopolized it ever since to themselves.

The MALDIVES. These are a vast cluster of small islands or little rocks just above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly resorted to by the Dutch, who drive on a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of small shells, which go, or rather formerly went for money upon the coasts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity in a medicinal capacity: "of this tree (says a well-informed author) they build vessels of twenty or thirty tons; their hulls, masts, sails, rigging, anchors, cables, provisions, and firing, are all from this useful tree."

The other islands in Asia, are those of KAMTSCHATKA, and the KURILE ISLES in the eastern or Pacific ocean.

ocean, many of them lately discovered by the Russians, and but little known. We have already mentioned BOMBAY on the Malabar coast, in speaking of India.

With regard to the language of all the Oriental islands, nothing certain can be said. Each island has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chinese, Portuguese, Dutch and Indian words are so frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in those matters, to know the radical language. The same may be almost said of their religion, for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahometan, Jewish, Christian, and other foreign superstitions.

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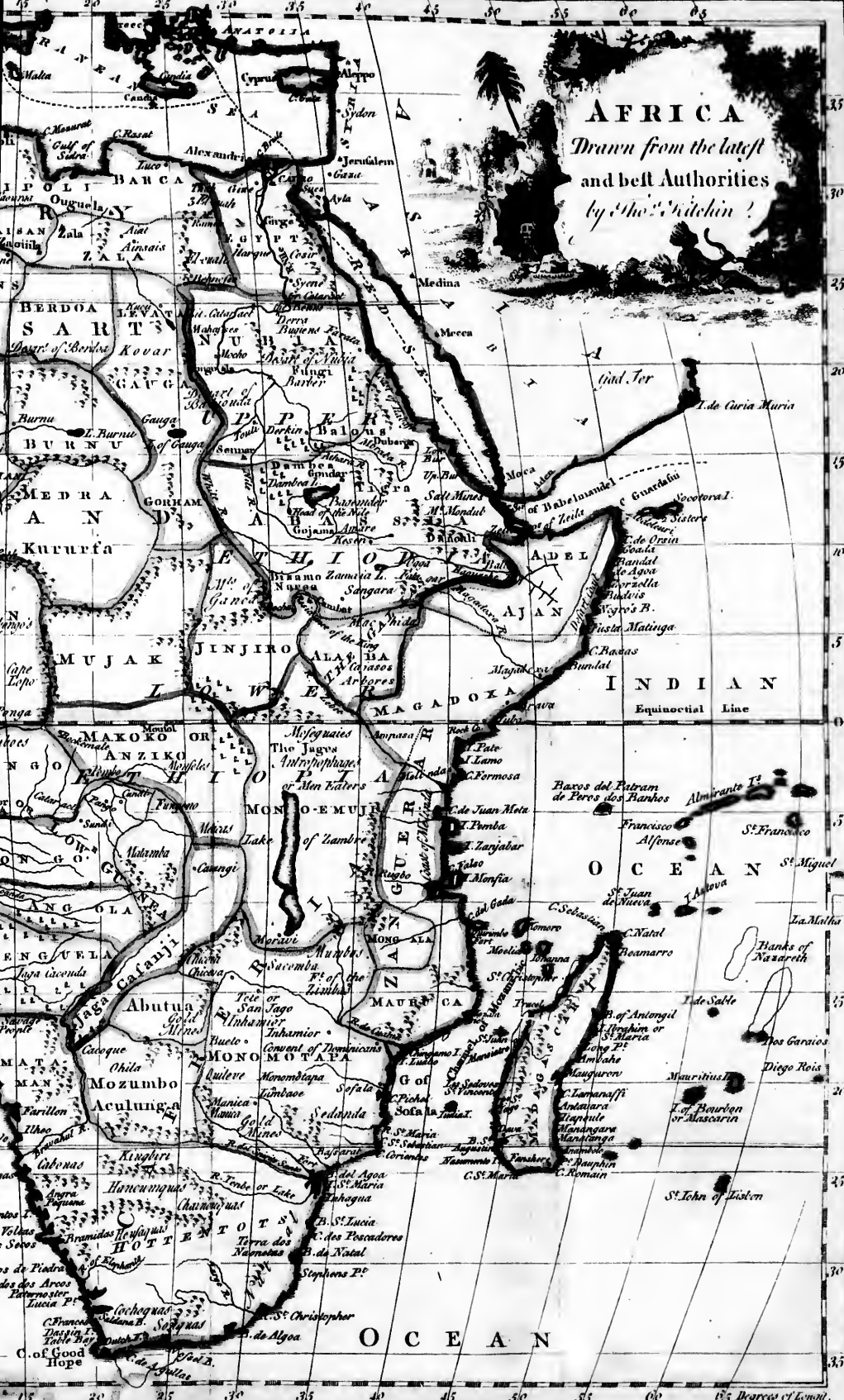
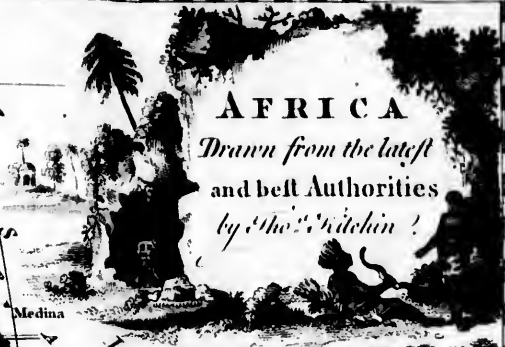
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AFRICA, the third grand division of the globe, is generally represented as bearing some resemblance to the form of a pyramid, the base being the northern part of it, which runs along the shores of the Mediterranean, and the point or top of the pyramid, the cape of Good-Hope. Africa is a peninsula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land, about sixty miles over, between the Red-Sea and the Mediterranean, usually called the Isthmus of Suez, and its utmost length from north to south, from cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 deg. N. to the cape of Good-Hope in 34-7 south lat. is 4300 miles; and the broadest part from cape Verd in 17-20 deg. to cape Guarda-fui near the straits of Babel-Mandel in 51-20 E. lon. is 3500 miles from east to west. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea, which separates it from Europe; on the east by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red-Sea, and the Indian ocean, which divides it from Asia; on the south by the southern ocean; and on the west by the great Atlantic ocean, which separates it from America. As the equator divides this extensive country almost in the middle, and the far greatest part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almost insupportable to an European; it being there greatly increased by the rays of the sun from vast deserts of burning sands. The coasts, however, and banks of rivers, such as the Nile, are generally fertile; and most parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being so populous as Europe or Asia. From what has been said, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, snow seldom falls in the plains: and it is generally never found, but on the tops of the highest mountains. The natives, in these scorching regions, would as soon expect that marble should melt, and flow in liquid streams, as that water by freezing should lose its fluidity, be arrested by the cold, and ceasing to flow become like the solid rock.

The most considerable rivers in Africa, are the Niger, which falls into the Atlantic or western ocean at Senegal, after a course of 2800 miles. It increases and decreases as the Nile, fertilises the country, and has grains of gold in many parts of it. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches of this river. The Nile, which dividing Egypt into two parts, discharges itself into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious course from its source in Abyssinia. The most considerable mountains in Africa, are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the western ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic ocean, as far as Egypt.

and had its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of astronomy, who used to observe the stars from its summit, on which account the poets represent him as bearing the heavens on his shoulders. The mountains of the Moon, extending themselves between Abyssinia and Monopotapa, and are still higher than those of Atlas. Those of Sierra Leona, or the mountains of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. These were stiled by the antients, the Mountains of God, on account of their being subject to thunder and lightning. The pike of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their first meridian, is said to be three miles high in the form of a sugar-loaf, and is situated on an island of the same name near the coast. The most noted capes, or promontories, in this country, are Cape Verd, so called, because the land is always covered with green trees, and mossy ground. It is the most westerly point of the continent of Africa. The cape of Good Hope, so denominated by the Portuguese, when they first went round it in 1498, and discovered the passage to Asia. It is the south extremity of Africa, the country of the Hottentots; and at present in the possession of the Dutch, and the general rendezvous of ships of every nation, who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one strait in Africa, which is called Babel Mandel, and joins the Red-Sea with the Indian ocean.

The situation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, standing as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the rest. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, the English, and the French, who have settlements on the coast of Africa, but that of the most authentic historians. It is however the misfortune of Africa, which, though it has 10,000 miles of sea coast, with noble, large, deep rivers, penetrating into the very centre of the country, it should have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; that it should be inhabited by an innumerable people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of these rivers are the most excellent harbours, deep, safe, calm and sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but quite destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandize. In short, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing so many things delightful, as well as convenient, within itself, seems to be almost entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who
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are quite unfollicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but also by the more civilized Europeans, who are settled in it, particularly the Portuguese.

Africa once contained several kingdoms and states, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the most extensive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful state of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itself, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world; even the British shores were visited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the assistance of the Mauritanians, subdued Carthage, and by degrees, all the neighbouring kingdoms and states. After this the natives, constantly plundered, and consequently impoverished, by the governors sent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might serve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed still more to the destruction of arts and sciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of all the coasts of Egypt and Barbary, in the seventh century. These were succeeded by the Turks, and both being of the Mahometan religion, whose professors carried desolation with them, wherever they came, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world, was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with respect to religion, may be divided into three sorts; namely, Pagans, Mahometans, and Christians. The first are the most numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer, to the cape of Good-Hope, and these are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coast. The people of Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites. There are also some Jews, on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is possessed of.

There are scarce any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned that agree in the modern divisions of Africa; and for this very reason, that scarce any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country, and consequently we must acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of several of the inland nations, which may be still reckoned among the unknown, and undiscovered parts of the world, but according to the best accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following table.

| | N.tions. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief cities. | Dist. & bearing from London. | Dist. of time from London. | Religion. | |
|------------------------|--|---------|----------|-----------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------|----------------|
| Barbary. | Moro. o | 500 | 480 | Fez | 1080 S. | 0 24 aft. | Mahometans | |
| | Algiers | 480 | 100 | Algiers | 920 S. | 0 15 bef. | Mahometans | |
| | Tunis | 220 | 170 | Tunis | 990 S. E. | 0 39 bef. | Mahometans | |
| | Tripoli | 700 | 240 | Tripoli | 1260 S. E. | 0 56 bef. | Mahometans | |
| | Barca | 400 | 300 | Tolemeta | 1440 S. E. | 1 26 bef. | Mahometans | |
| | Egypt | 600 | 250 | Grand Cairo | 1920 S. E. | 2 21 bef. | Mahometans | |
| Up. Ethiopia. | Bilidulgerid | 2500 | 350 | Dara | 1565 S. | 0 32 aft. | Pagans | |
| | Zaara | 2400 | 660 | Tegeffa | 1840 S. | 0 24 aft. | Pagans | |
| | Negroland | 2200 | 840 | Madinga | 2500 S. | 0 38 aft. | Pagans | |
| | Guinea | 1800 | 360 | Benin | 2700 S. | 0 20 bef. | Pagans | |
| | Nubia | 940 | 600 | Nubia | 2418 S. E. | 2 12 bef. | Mah. & Pag. | |
| | Alyffinia | 900 | 800 | Gondar | 2880 S. E. | 2 20 bef. | Christians | |
| | Abex | 540 | 130 | Doncala | 3580 S. E. | 2 36 bef. | Christ. & Pag. | |
| | The Middle Parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans. | | | | | | | |
| | Lower Guinea. | Loango | 410 | 300 | Loango | 3300 S. | 0 44 bef. | Christ. & Pag. |
| | | Congo | 540 | 420 | St. Salvador | 3480 S. | 1 0 bef. | Christ. & Pag. |
| Angola | | 360 | 250 | Loando | 3700 S. | 0 58 bef. | Christ. & Pag. | |
| Benguela | | 430 | 180 | Benguela | 3900 S. | 0 58 bef. | Pagans | |
| Matanan | | 450 | 240 | No Towns | * * * | * * * | Pagans | |
| Ajan | | 900 | 300 | Brava | 3702 S. E. | 2 40 bef. | Pagans | |
| Zanguebar | | 1400 | 350 | Melinda or Mozambique | 4440 S. E. | 2 38 bef. | Pagans | |
| Monomotapa | | 960 | 660 | Monomotapa | 4500 S. | 1 18 bef. | Pagans | |
| Monemugi | | 900 | 660 | Chicova | 4260 S. | 1 44 bef. | Pagans | |
| Sofola | | 480 | 300 | Sofola | 4600 S. E. | 2 18 bef. | Pagans | |
| Terra de N.t. | | 600 | 350 | No Towns | * * * | * * * | Pagans | |
| Caffaria or Hottentots | | 780 | 660 | Cape of Good Hope | 5200 S. | 1 4 bef. | Most Heathen Pagans | |

The principal islands of Africa lie in the Indian seas and Atlantic ocean, of which the following belong to, or trade with the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from India.

| Islands. | Towns. | Trade with or belong to. |
|---|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Babelmandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea | Babelmandel | All nations |
| Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean | Calanfa | Ditto |
| The Comora Isles, ditto | Joanna | Ditto |
| Madagafcar, ditto | St. Austin | Ditto |
| Mauritius, ditto | Mauritius | French |
| Bourbon, ditto | Bourbon | Ditto |
| St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean | St. Helena | English |
| Ascension, ditto | | Uninhabited |
| St. Mathew, ditto | | Ditto |
| St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes-Island, Fernando | St. Thomas, Anaboa | Portuguese |
| Cape Verd Islands, ditto | St. Domingo | Ditto |
| Goree, ditto | Fort St. Michael | French |
| Canaries, ditto | Palma, St. Christophers | Spanish |
| Madeiras, ditto | Santa Cruz, Funchal | Portuguese |
| The Azores, or Western Isles, lie nearly at an equal distance from Europe, Asia, and Africa | Angra | Ditto |

Having given the reader some idea of Africa, in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their supposed dimensions, we shall now consider it under three grand divisions: first, Egypt; secondly, the states of Barbary, stretching along the coast of the Mediterranean, from Egypt in the east, to the Atlantic Ocean, west; and, lastly, that part of Africa between the tropic of Cancer, and the cape of Good Hope; the last of these divisions, indeed, is vastly greater than the other two; but the nations, which it contains, are so little known, and so barbarous, and like all barbarous nations, so similar in most respects to one another, that they may, without impropriety, be thrown under one general head.

E G Y P T.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | |
|---|----------|
| Miles. | Degrees. |
| Length 600 } between { 20 and 32 north latitude. | |
| Breadth 250 } between { 28 and 36 east longitude. | |

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by the Mediterranean sea, north; by the Red sea, east; by Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the south; and by the desert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, west.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|----------------------------|---------------|--|
| Northern division contains | Lower Egypt | GRAND CAIRO, E. lon. 32. N. lat. 30. |
| | | Bulac Alexandria Rosetto Damietta |
| Southern division contains | Upper Egypt | Sayd or Thebes Coffiar |

AIR.] In April and May the air is hot, and often infectious; the inhabitants are blinded with drifts of sand. Those evils are remedied by the rising and overflowing of the Nile.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Whoever is in the least acquainted with literature, knows that the vast fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain, (little falling in that country) but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to rise when the sun is vertical in Ethiopia, and the annual rains fall there, viz. the latter end of May to September, and sometimes October. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be seen in the plains, but the tops of forests and fruit-trees, their

| Diff. of time from London | Religion |
|--|--------------------|
| 0 24 aft. | Mahometans |
| 0 13 bef. | Mahometans |
| 0 39 bef. | Mahometans |
| 0 56 bef. | Mahometans |
| 1 26 bef. | Mahometans |
| 2 21 bef. | Mahometans |
| 0 32 aft. | Pagans |
| 0 24 aft. | Pagans |
| 0 38 aft. | Pagans |
| 0 20 bef. | Pagans |
| 2 12 bef. | Mah. & Pag. |
| 2 20 bef. | Christians |
| 2 36 bef. | Christ. & Pag. |
| The Europeans. | |
| 0 44 bef. | Christ. & Pag. |
| 1 0 bef. | Christ. & Pag. |
| 0 58 bef. | Christ. & Pag. |
| 0 58 bef. | Pagans |
| * * * | Pagans |
| 2 40 bef. | Pagans |
| 2 38 bef. | Pagans |
| 1 18 bef. | Pagans |
| 1 44 bef. | Pagans |
| 2 18 bef. | Pagans |
| * * * | Pagans |
| 1 4 bef. | Most of the Pagans |
| and Atlantic ocean, and serve to Europeans, and serve to | |
| Trade with or depend on | |
| All nations | |
| Ditto | |
| Ditto | |
| Ditto | |
| French | |
| Ditto | |
| English | |
| Uninhabited | |
| Ditto | |
| Portuguese | |
| Ditto | |
| French | |
| Spanish | |
| Portuguese | |
| Ditto | |

towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of a jubilee, with all sorts of festivities. The banks or mounds which confine it, are cut by the Turkish basha, attended by his grandees; but according to captain Norden, who was present on the occasion, the spectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is let into what they call the Chalis, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is distributed into cuts, for supplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, such is the fertility of the soil, that the labouring husbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and in about six weeks, nothing can be more charming than the prospect, which the face of the country presents, in rising corn, vegetables, and verdure of every sort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar canes, and other plants, which require moisture, is supplied by small but regular cuts from cisterns and reservoirs. Dates, plantanes, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harvest months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and cucumbers, (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants) one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian pasturage is equally prolific, most of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the sheep four lambs a year.

ANIMALS.] Egypt abounds in black cattle, and it is said that the inhabitants employ every day 200,000 oxen, in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, those people not being suffered by the Turks to ride on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox, in its hinder parts, with the head like a horse, is common in Upper Egypt. Tygers, hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat, called Ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The camelion, a little animal something resembling a lizard, that changes colour, as you stand to look upon him, is found here as well as in other countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not seem to be any material difference between it, and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet
in

in length, and have four short legs, with large feet armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable scales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the sedge, and other cover, on the sides of rivers, and pretty much resembling the trunk of an old tree, sometimes surprizes the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces likewise great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) somewhat resembling a duck, was deified by the antient Egyptians for its destroying serpents, and pestiferous insects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong, that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } As the population of Egypt is almost confined to the banks of the Nile, and the rest of the country inhabited by Arabs, and other nations, we can say little upon this head, with precision. It seems however to be certain, that Egypt is at present not near so populous as formerly, and that its depopulation is owing to the inhabitants being slaves to the Turks. They are, however, still very numerous, but the populousness of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

The descendants of the original Egyptians, are an ill-looking slovenly people, immersed in indolence, and are distinguished by the name of Coptis; in their complexions they are rather sun-burnt than swarthy, or black. Their ancestors were once Christians, and in general they still pretend to be of that religion. Mahometanism is the prevailing worship among the natives. Those who inhabit the villages and fields, at any considerable distance from the Nile, I have already mentioned to consist of Arabs or their descendants, who are of a deep, swarthy complexion, and they are represented by the best authorities, as retaining the patriarchal tending their flocks, and many of them without any fixed place of abode. The Turks, who reside in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, and the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Coptis, who dress very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers, but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloath coat, either over or under it. The Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind, content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body.

body. The Jews wear blue leather slippers, the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign Christians yellow. The dress of the women is tawdry and unbecoming, but their cloaths are silk, when they can afford it, and such of them as are not exposed to the sun, have delicate complexions and features. The Coptis are generally excellent accomptants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exercises and diversions are much the same as those made use of in Persia, and other Asiatic dominions. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling slight-of-hand men.

RELIGION.] To what I have already said concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mahometans are enthusiasts, and have among them their fantas or fellows who pretend to a superior degree of holiness, and without any ceremony intrude into the best houses, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little, and it would be hard to say what species of Christianity is professed by the Christian Cops, which are here numerous, but they profess themselves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who by the dint of money generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the most ancient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the califate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabesque, as it is called, is still the current language, but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be spoken.

LEARNING AND LEARN'D MEN.] Though it is past dispute that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet scarce a vestige of it remains among their descendents. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahometan masters, but here it is proper to make one observation which is of general use. The califs or Saracens who subdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The first, who were the immediate successors of Mahomet, made war from conscience and principle upon all kind of literature excepting the Alcoran; and hence it was that when they took possession of Alexandria, which contained the most magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuscripts were applied for some months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The same fate attended upon the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The califs of the second race, were men

of taste and learning, but of a peculiar strain. They bought up all the manuscripts that survived the general conflagration relating to astronomy, medicine, and some useless parts of philosophy, but they had no taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, painting, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of califs, especially those who called themselves califs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed.

All the learning therefore possessed by the modern Egyptians consists in arithmetical calculations for the dispatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some knowledge of Arabesque or the Mahometan religion.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with those than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often described. Their antiquity is beyond the researches of history itself, and their original uses are still unknown. The basis of the largest, covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if measured obliquely to the terminating point 700 feet. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder. In short, the pyramids of Egypt are the most stupendous, and, to appearance, the most useless structures that ever were raised by the hands of men.

The mummy pits, so called for their containing the mummies or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now lost. It is said that some of the bodies thus embalmed, are perfect and distinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth is a curiosity thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock, consisting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houses, the intricacies of which occasion its name. The lake Mæris was dug by order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches which still subsist, and are evidences of the utility, as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, mostly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo, is a continued scene of antiquities, of which the oldest are the most stupendous, but the more modern the most beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its sculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian

Corinthian order, the shaft of which is one stone, being eighty-eight feet, nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column, the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedestal. The Sphynx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the shoulders of a woman hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids.

The papyrus is one of the natural curiosities of Egypt, and served the antients to write upon, but we know not the manner of preparing it. The pith of it is a nourishing food. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens, is common in Egypt, and now practised in some parts of Europe. The construction of the oven is very curious.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND } Even a slight review of these
PUBLIC EDIFICES. } would amount to a large volume.
In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are still entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as fresh and vivid, as when first laid on.

Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coast, was once the emporium of all the world, and by means of the Red-Sea, furnished Europe, and great part of Asia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It stands forty miles west from the Nile, and a hundred and twenty north-west of Cairo. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-house erected on the opposite island of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. All the other parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the cisterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building Nero Alexandria, which at present is a very ordinary seaport, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithstanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their mosques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within these ruins, preserve an inexpressible air of majesty. Some think that Old Alexandria was built from the materials of the antient Memphis.

Rosetta, or Raschid, stands twenty-five miles to the north-west of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation, and delightful prospects, which command the fine country, or island of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewise a place of great trade.

Cairo, the present capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air, and its narrow streets. It is divided into two towns, the old, and

and the new, and defended by an old castle, the works of which are said to be three miles in circumference. The well called Joseph's well, is a curious piece of mechanism, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is still revered in Egypt, where they shew granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vast antiquity, but it is very questionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is shewn in Old Cairo, but captain Norden suspects it is a Saracen work, nor does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city itself. On the bank of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gize, which is thought to be the antient Memphis. The Christians of Cairo practise a holy cheat, during the Easter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead arise from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The streets of Cairo are pestered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor: the intense heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the sound of drums, the noise of that instrument sets them a dancing all their lives after.

The other towns of note in Egypt are Damietta, supposed to be the antient Pelusium; Bulac; Seyd, on the west bank of the Nile, 200 miles south of Cairo, said to be the antient Egyptian Thebes, and by the few who have visited it, it is reported to be the most capital antique curiosity that is now extant. The general practice of strangers, who visit those places, is to hire a janifary, whose authority commonly protects them from the insults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a small city, and gives name to the isthmus, that joins Africa with Asia. The children of Israel are supposed to have marched near this city, when they left Egypt, in their way towards the Red-Sea. The above is all the account my bounds will admit of the topography of this country, where almost every object and village presents some amazing piece of antiquity. The difficulties in visiting it are great; so that the accounts we can depend upon, are but few, nor do they always agree together.

[MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Modern geographers mention little of Egyptian manufactures at this time, but captain Norden, who travelled to that country, at the expence of his present Danish majesty's grandfather, about the year 1737, has been pretty explicit on the subject of commerce, and from him we learn that the Egyptians export prodigious quantities

quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts, callicoos, yellow wax, sal armoniac, saffron, sugar, senna, cassia. They trade with the Arabs, for coffee, drugs, spices, callicoos, and other merchandizes, which are landed at Suez, from whence they send them to Europe. Several European states have consuls resident in Egypt, but the customs of the Turkish government are managed by Jews. A number of English vessels arrive yearly at Alexandria, some of which are laden on account of the owners, but most of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahometan traders. Captain Norden seems to think that the English consul and merchants make no great figure at Alexandria, but that they are in much less danger, and less troubled than the French.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] These seem to be but little known to modern times. It is certain that Egypt is subject to the Turks, and that even the meanest janitary is respected by the natives. A viceroy is sent to Egypt, under the title of the pasha or bashaw of Cairo, and is one of the greatest officers of the Ottoman empire; but as the interior parts of Egypt are almost inaccessible to strangers, we know little of their government and laws. It is generally agreed, that the pasha is very careful how he provokes the little princes, or rather heads of clans, who have parcelled out Egypt among themselves, and whom he governs chiefly by playing one against another. He has however a large regular army, and a militia, which serve as nurseries from whence the Ottoman troops are recruited. The keeping up this army employs his chief attention. It has sometimes happened, that those pashas have employed their arms against their masters; and they are sometimes displaced by the Porte, upon complaints from those petty princes. Those circumstances may account for the reason why Egypt is not over-loaded with taxes. Captain Norden and Dr. Pocock have given us the best, and indeed a very unfavourable account of those petty princes, who are called the Schechs of the Bedouins, or wandering Arabs, who are sometimes too powerful to receive laws from the Turkish government.

A certain number of beys or begs, are appointed over the provinces of Egypt, under the pasha. Though these beys are designed to be checks upon him, yet they often assume independent powers, and many of them have considerable revenues.

REVENUES.] These are very inconsiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the despotism of its government. Some say that they amount to a million sterling, but that two-thirds of the whole is spent in the country.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Authors are greatly divided on this article. Captain Norden tells us, that it is divided into two corps of janisaries, and assafs are the chief, the former amounting to about six or eight thousand, and the latter to between three and four thousand. The other troops are of little account. After all, it does not at all appear, that the pasha ever ventures to employ those troops against the Arab or Egyptian princes I have already mentioned, and who have separate armies of their own; so that, in fact, their dependence upon the Porte, is little more than nominal, and amounts at most to feudal services.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs, sat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyses II. king of Persia, conquered the Egyptians 520 years before the birth of Christ; and that in the reign of these princes, those wonderful structures the pyramids were raised, which cannot be viewed without astonishment. Egypt continued a part of the Persian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquished Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conquests of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being seized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the share of Ptolemy, by some supposed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Christ. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, ascended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been mistress successively to Julius Cæsar and Mark Anthony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second calif of the successors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, said to consist of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy; and the same prince caused the Old Testament to be translated into Greek, but whether by seventy-two interpreters, and in the manner commonly related, is justly questioned; this translation is known by the name of the Septuagint, and is often quoted by commentators. About the time of the crusades, between the year 1150, and 1190, Egypt was governed by Noreddin, whose son, the famous Saladin, was so dreadful to those Christian adventurers, and retook from them Jerusalem. He instituted the military corps
of

of Mamalukes, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body. Egypt, for some time, made a figure under those illustrious usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks, under Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the Mamalukes several bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

While Selim was settling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the antient inhabitants withdrew into the deserts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate those marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their posterity is known all over Europe and Asia, by the name of Gipsies. Though I shall not warrant the truth of this account, yet it seems to be countenanced from the roving dispositions, and the peculiar manners, features, and complexion of those swarthy begging itinerants. Of late, however, many of them have incorporated with, and adopted the manners of the people among whom they reside.

THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head I shall rank the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez, 2. Algiers, 3. Tunis, 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea; on the south, by Tafilet; and on the east, by Segelmessâ and the kingdom of Algiers; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the east, and Morocco on the south, and is surrounded in other parts by the sea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Mount Atlas, and on the west by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet. According to Dr. Shaw, who resided twelve years at Algiers in quality of chaplain to the British factory, and has corrected many errors of ancient and modern geographers respecting the states of Barbary, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and east; by the kingdom of Algiers on the west; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the south; being 220 miles in length from north to south, and 170 in breadth from east to west.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea; on the south by the country of the Berberies; on the west by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the east by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the sea-coast; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs.

This being premised, I shall consider the Barbary states as forming (which they really do) a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exercise of its internal policy; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom, in the customs and manners of the inhabitants.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other states, excepting in the months of July and August.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL } Those states, under PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } the Roman empire, were justly denominated the garden of the world, and to have a residence there was considered as the highest stage of luxury. The produce of their soil formed those magazines, which furnished all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of their constitution, yet they are still fertile, not only in the above-mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen-gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and by the report of Europeans, who have lived there for some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of life; for their great people find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mahometan law, and make free with excellent wines, and spirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces salt-petre, and great quantities of excellent salt, and lead and iron have been found in several places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the states of Barbary, but their deserts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian.

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Tunis

bian. Though their breed are now said to be decayed, yet some very fine ones have been lately imported into England. Camels and dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs, a most serviceable creature, begot by an ass upon a cow, are their beasts of burden. Their cows are but small, and barren of milk. Their sheep yield but indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, camelcons, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. Besides vermin, says Dr. Shaw, (speaking of his travels thro' Barbary) the apprehensions we were under in some parts at least of this country, of being bitten or stung by the scorpion, the viper, or the venomous-spider, rarely failed to interrupt our repose; a refreshment to very grateful, and so highly necessary to a weary traveller. Partridges and quails, eagles, hawks, and all kind of wild fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the capsparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the sweetness of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird, but it cannot live out of its own climate. The seas and bays of Barbary abound with the finest and most delicious fish of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to those of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MAN- } Morocco was cer-
NERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } tainly formerly far
more populous than it is now, if, as travellers say, its capital contained 100,000 houses, whereas at present, it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants, nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true, that their king or emperor has 80,000 horse and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is said to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Christian slaves; but no estimate can be formed as to the populousness of its territory. Some travellers report, that it is inhabited by a friendly hospitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from those of the metropolis.

Tunis is the most polished republic of all the Barbary states. The capital contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradesmens shops, and its suburbs consist of 1000 houses. The Tunisines are indeed exceptions to the other states of Barbary; for even the most civilized of the European governments, might improve from their manners. Their distinctions are well kept up, and proper respect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned professions. They cultivate friendship with the European states; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them, and the inhabitants are said at present to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom.

loom. The Tunisine women are excessively handsome in their persons, and though the men are sun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate, nor are they less neat and elegant in their dress; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead ore, the same pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made use of when she is said (2 Kings chap. ix. verse 30.) to have painted her face, the words of the original being, that she set off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen in general are sober, orderly, and clean in their persons, their behaviour genteel and complaisant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the streets and city.

Tripoli was once the richest, most populous, and opulent of all the states on the coast; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are said to amount to between 4 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are pretty much of a piece with those of the Egyptians already described. The subjects of the Barbary states, however, in general subsisting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a prize at sea. They are notwithstanding far inferior to the English, and other European states, both in the construction and management of their vessels. They are, if we except the Tunisines, void of all arts and literature. The misery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's service, are beyond all description; but those who inhabit the inland parts of the country, are a hospitable inoffensive people, and indeed it is a general observation, that the more distant the inhabitants of those states are from the seats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveliness about them, especially those who are of Arabic descent, that gives them an air of contentment, and having nothing to lose, they are peaceable among themselves. The Moors are supposed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppressed by a handful of insolent domineering Turks, the refuse of the streets of Constantinople.

DRESS.] The dress of these people is a linen shirt, over which they tie a silk or cloth vestment with a sash, and over that a loose coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have slippers on their feet; and persons of condition sometimes wear buskins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their slippers when they attend religious duties, or the person of their sovereign. They are fond of striped and fancied silks. The dress

of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a sort of a cawl on their heads instead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houses consists of carpets and mattresses, on which they sit and lie. In eating, their slovenliness is shocking. They are prohibited gold and silver vessels; and their meat, which they swallow by handfuls, is boiled or roasted to rags. Adultery in the women is punished with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the most unnatural crimes with impunity.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of those states are Mahometans: but many subjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern sectarist, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the califs. All of them are very fond of ideots, and in some cases their protection screens offenders from punishment, for the most notorious crimes. In the main, however, the Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of those states are now promiscuously called, have adopted the very worst parts of the Mahometan religion, and seem to have retained only as much of it as authorizes them to commit the most horrible villanies.

LANGUAGE.] As the states of Barbary possess those countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is still spoken in some of the inland countries, and even by some inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the sea port towns, and maritime countries, a bastard kind of Arabic is spoken, and sea-faring people are no strangers to that medley of living and dead languages, that is so well known in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

**ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } This article is well
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } worth the study of an
antiquary, but the subjects of it are difficult of access. The
reader can scarcely doubt that the countries which contained
Carthage, and the pride of the Phenician, Greek, and Roman
works, is replete with the most curious remains of antiquity,
but they lie scattered amidst ignorant, barbarous inhabitants.
Some remains of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatness are
still to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidences of
their ancient grandeur and populousness. These point out the
old Julia Cæsarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in
magnificence to Carthage itself. A few of the aqueducts of
Carthage are said to be still remaining, but no vestige of its
walls. The same is the fate of Utica, and many other re-
nowned cities of antiquity; and so over-run is the country
with barbarism, that their very scites are not known, even by
their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings which
remain**

remain still in tolerable preservation. Besides those of classical antiquity, many Saracen monuments of the most stupendous magnificence are likewise found in this vast tract; these were erected under the califs of Bagdat, and the antient kings of the country before it was subdued by the Turks, or reduced to its present form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curiosities belonging to this country, excepting its salt-pits, which in some places take up an area of six miles. Dr. Shaw mentions springs found here that are so hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

Before I close this article it may be proper to observe, that this country has been but little visited by the curious, if we except Dr. Shaw; but it certainly deserves a more accurate investigation.

[CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almost in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities, but by the best accounts, the common people live in a dirty slovenly manner.

The city of Algiers, is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though, as I have already observed, it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houses, and 107 mosques. Their public baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea from Algiers is very beautiful; but the city, though for several ages it has braved the greatest powers in Christendom, could make but a faint defence against a regular siege; and it is said that three English fifty-gun ships might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the finest of all these states, contains the remains of many noble cities, some of them still in good condition. The town itself has fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods; but, like Algiers, it is distressed for want of fresh water.

The city of Tripoli consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but never can make any considerable figure, on account of the inconveniencies attending its situation, particularly the want of sweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes

disputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Constantina was the antient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities of Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides, excepting the south-west.

Besides the above towns and cities, many other, formerly of great renown, lie scattered up and down this immense tract of country. I cannot, however, leave it without mentioning the city of Fez, at present the capital of that kingdom: some say that it contains near 300,000 inhabitants, besides merchants and foreigners. Its mosques amount to 500, one of them magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee lies in the same kingdom, and was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier, situated about two miles within the straits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, consort of Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the English what Gibraltar is now; and it must have been a most noble acquisition, had not the misunderstandings between the king and his parliament obliged him to blow up its fortifications and demolish its harbour; so that from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing town. Ceuta, upon the same strait, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always besieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houses; but the inhabitants are said to be rich, extremely complaisant, and they live in an elegant manner.

The provinces of Suz, Tafilet, and Gefula, form no part of the states of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their sovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower subjects of those states, know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies, to be supplied with necessary utensils and manufactures, so that their exports consist chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, sword knots and carpets, which are cheaper and softer than those of Turkey, though not so good in other respects. As they leave almost all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Christians settled among them, the latter have established silk and linen works, which supply the higher ranks of their own subjects. They have no ships that, properly speaking, are employed in commerce; so that the French and English carry on the greatest part of their trade. Their exports, besides those

already mentioned, consist in elephants teeth, ostrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum arabic, and sandrac. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said to carry on a considerable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and some inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vast numbers of negroes, who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities, the particulars of which are too many to specify. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco, are but half those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation that no nation is fond of trading with these states, not only on account of their capricious despotism, but the villainy of their individuals, both natives and Jews, who take all opportunities of cheating, and when detected, are seldom punished.

It has often been thought surprizing, that the Christian powers should suffer their marine to be insulted by those barbarians, who take the ships of all nations with whom they are at peace, or rather, who do not pay them a subsidy either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwise, than by supposing, first, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be their lord paramount; secondly, that no Christian power would be fond of seeing Algiers, and the rest of that coast, in possession of another; and, thirdly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would instantly carry their effects into their desarts and mountains, so that the benefit, resulting from the conquest, must be tedious and precarious.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In Morocco, government cannot be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners, with their own hands, in all criminal matters, nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In absence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is seldom that they mind the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however, of the califate government still continue, for in places where no military officer resides, the musti or high priest is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our justices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the grand signior to be his

superior, and he pays him a distant allegiance as the chief representative of Mahomet. What I have said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkish pasha or dey, who governs in the name of the grand signior, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious subjects, to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every soldier in the army has a vote in chusing the succeeding dey; and though the election is often attended with blood-shed, yet it is no sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognized and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the Porte, but that is seldom refused, as the divan is no stranger to the dispositions of the people. The power of the dey is despotic, and the income of the dey of Algiers, amounts to about 150,000*l.* a year, without greatly oppressing the subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. These deys pay slight annual tributes to the Porte. When the grand signior is at war with a Christian power, he requires their assistance, as he does that of the king of Morocco, but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance, the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council, which consists of thirty pashas. These pashas seldom fail of forming parties, among the soldiers, against the reigning dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council, and the strongest candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is deposed; sometimes, though but very seldom, he resigns his authority to save his life, and it is seldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited, but an unsuccessful expedition, or too pacific a conduct seldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES.] I have already mentioned those of Algiers, but they are now said to be exceeded by Tunis. They consist of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Christians, a small capitation tax, and the customs paid by the English, French, and other nations, who are suffered to trade with those states. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, because none of his subjects can be said to possess any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ransoms of Christian slaves are his perquisites. He sometimes shares in the vessels of the other states, which entitles him to part of their prizes. He claims a

tenth

tenth of the goods of his Mahometan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewise considerable profits in the Negroland, and other caravans, especially the slave trade towards the south. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue in money, does not exceed 165,000l. a year.

MILITARY STRENGTH } By the best accounts we have

AT SEA AND LAND. } received, the king of Morocco can bring to the field 100,000 men; but the strength of his army consists of cavalry mounted by his negro slaves. Those wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but that king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, which lay at Sallee, and being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, consisting of Turks, and cogolies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About 1000 of them do garrison duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the dey can bring 2000 Moorish horse to the field, but as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little trusted. Those troops are under excellent discipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary states, keep up a force in proportion to their abilities, so that a few years ago, they refused to send any tribute to the Turkish emperor, who seems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets, and a more extensive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished, the present inhabitants have scarce any merchant ships belonging to them, nor indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which are but few and small, and some years ago did not exceed six ships from thirty-six to fifty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government, the other captains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law. With such a contemptible fleet, these infidels not only harrass the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of presents.

HISTORY.] There perhaps is no problem in history so unaccountable as the decadence of the splendor, power, and glory of the states of Barbary, which, when Rome was mistress of the world, formed the fairest jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh century that, after these

states had been by turns in possession of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the califs or Saracens of Bagdat conquered them, and from thence became masters of almost all Spain, from whence their posterity was totally driven about the year 1492, when the exiles settled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coast. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who pressed them so hard, that they called to their assistance the two famous brothers Barbarossa, who were admirals of the Turkish fleet, and who after breaking the Spanish yoke, imposed upon the inhabitants of all those states (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they were unsuccessful; and, as we have already observed, the inhabitants have in fact shaken off the Turkish yoke likewise.

The emperors or kings of Morocco, are the successors of those sovereigns of that country who were called xeriffs, and whose powers resembled that of the califat of the Saracens. They have been in general a set of bloody tyrants, though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed don Sebastian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almost a continued state of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Christian princes ever since; nor does the crown of Great-Britain sometimes disdain, as in the year 1769, to purchase their friendship with presents*.

Of AFRICA, from the Tropic of Cancer to the
Cape of Good-Hope. *See the Table and Map.*

THIS immense territory is, comparatively speaking, very little known; there is no traveller that has penetrated into the interior parts, so that we are ignorant not only of the bounds but even of the names of several inland countries. In many material circumstances, the inhabitants of this extensive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyssinia, who are tawny, and profess a mixture of Christianity, Judaism and Paganism, they are all of a black complexion: in their religion, except on the sea coasts, which have been visited and settled by strangers, they are pagans: and

* The inhabitants of the Barbary coast have been long known by the name of Moors, because the Saracens first entered Europe from Mauritania in Africa, the country of the Moors.

and the form of government is every where monarchical. Few princes, however, possess a very extensive jurisdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are grossly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they are little acquainted with one another; and generally united in small societies, each governed by its own prince. In Abyssinia indeed, as well as in Congo, Loango, and Angola, we are told of powerful monarchs; but on examination, it is found that the authority of these princes stands on a precarious footing, each tribe or separate body of their subjects being under the influence of a petty chieftain of their own, to whose commands, however contrary to those of the *negatcha negascht*, or king of kings, they are always ready to submit. This indeed must always be the case among rude nations, where the art of governing, like all others, is in a very simple and imperfect state. In the succession to the throne, force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the descendants, whether male or female.

The fertility of a country so prodigiously extensive, might be supposed more various than we find it is; in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to the advantages of soil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile: this arises from the intense heat of the sun, which, where it meets with sufficient moisture, produces the utmost luxuriance; and in those countries where there are few rivers, reduces the surface of the earth to a barren sand. Of this sort are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and consequently of all other necessaries, are reduced to perfect deserts, as the name of the latter denotes. In those countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land part of the year, as in Abyssinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the highest perfection and greatest abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batua, Truticui, Monomotapa, Casati, and Mehencimugi, are extremely rich in gold and silver. The baser metals likewise are found in these and many other parts of Africa. But the persons of the natives make the most considerable article in the produce and traffic of this miserable quarter of the globe. On the Guinea or western coast, the English trade to James Fort, and other settlements near the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hard ware and spirituous liquors, for the persons of the natives. Among the Negroes, a man's wealth consists in the number of his family, whom he sells like so many

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many cattle, and often at an inferior price. Gold and ivory, next to the slave trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. These are carried on from the same coast where the Dutch and French, as well as English, have their settlements for this purpose. The Portuguese are in possession of the east and west coast of Africa, from the Tropic of Capricorn to the Equator; which immense tract they became masters of by their successive attempts and happy discovery and navigation of the Cape of Good Hope. From the coast of Zanguebar, on the eastern side, they trade not only for the articles abovementioned, but likewise for several others, as fenna, aloes, civet, ambergris, and frankincense. The Dutch have settlements towards the southern parts of the continent, in the country called Cafiraria, or the land of the Hottentots, where their ships bound for India usually put in, and trade with the natives for their cattle, in exchange for which they give them spirituous liquors.

HISTORY.] The history of this continent is little known, and probably affords no materials which deserve to render it more so. We know from the antients, who sailed a considerable way round the coasts, that the inhabitants were in the same rude situation near 2000 years ago in which they are in at present, that is, they had nothing of humanity about them but the form. This may either be accounted for by supposing that nature has placed some insuperable barrier between the natives of this division of Africa and the inhabitants of Europe, or that the former, being so long accustomed to a savage manner of life, and degenerating from one age to another, at length became altogether incapable of making any progress in civility or science. It is very certain that all the attempts of the Europeans, particularly of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the least impression on these savage mortals, or giving them the least inclination or even idea of the European manner of life.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African islands, some lie in the Eastern or Indian Ocean, and some in the Western or Atlantic. We shall begin with those in the Indian Ocean, the chief of which are Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagascar, the Comora Islands, Bourbon, and Mauritius. *See the Map.*

ZOCOTRA. This island is situated in east lon. 53, north lat. 12, thirty leagues east of Cape Gardefoi, on the continent of Africa; it is eighty miles long and fifty-four broad, and has

has two good harbours, where the European ships used formerly to put in when they lost their passage to India. It is a populous plentiful country, yielding most of the fruits and plants that are usually found within the tropics, together with frankincense, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The island of Babelmandel gives name to the straits at the entrance of the Red-Sea, where it is situated in east lon. 44-30, north lat. 12, about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyssinian shores. The Abyssinians or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the possession of this island, as it commands the entrance into the South-Sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but since the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope the trade by the Red-Sea is of little importance. The island is of little value, being a barren sandy spot of earth not five miles round.

COMORA. These islands are situated between 41 and 46 east lon. and between 10 and 14 south lat. at an equal distance from Madagascar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, is about 30 miles long and 15 broad, and affords plenty of provisions, and such fruits as are produced between the tropics. East-India ships, bound to Bombay, usually touch here for refreshments. The inhabitants are Negroes of the Mahometan persuasion, and entertain our seamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largest of the African islands, and is situated between 43 and 51 deg. east lon. and between 10 and 26 south lat. 300 miles south-east of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 miles in length from north to south; and generally between 2 and 300 miles broad. The sea rolls with great rapidity, and is exceeding rough between this island and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel or passage, through which all European ships, in their voyage to and from India, generally fail, unless prevented by storms.

Madagascar is a pleasant, desirable, and fertile country, abounding in sugar, honey, vines, fruit trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious stones, iron, some silver, copper, steel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champaign; watered with

numerous rivers, and well stored with fish. The air is generally temperate, and said to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; some white, some Negroes, some Mahometans, some pagans. The whites and those of a tawny complexion who inhabit the coasts, are descended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites; but here are no mosques, temples, nor any stated worship, except that they offer sacrifice of beasts on particular occasions; as when sick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their assemblies, circumcise their children, declare war, enter into new built houses, or bury their dead. Many of them observe the Jew sabbath, and give some account of the sacred history, the creation and fall of man, as also of Noah, Abraham, Moses, and David; from whence it is conjectured they are descended of Jews who formerly settled here, though none knows how or when. This island was discovered by the Portuguese, and the French took possession of it in 1642; but the people disliking their government, they were driven out in 1651; since which the natives have had the sole possession of the island, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon one another for slaves and plunder. It is thought the French will again attempt to establish themselves here, if the other maritime powers do not interfere.

MAURITIUS. Maurice, or Mauritius, was so called by the Dutch, who first touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their stadtholder. It is situated in east lon. 56, south lat. 20. about 400 miles east of Madagascar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ships, secure against any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleasant. The mountains, of which there are many, and some so high that their tops are covered with snow, produce the best ebony in the world, besides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly resemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The island is watered with several pleasant rivers well stocked with fish; and though the soil is none of the most fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and sheep. It was formerly subject to the Dutch, but is now in the possession of the French.

BOURBON. The Isle of Bourbon is situated in east lon. 54, south lat. 21, about 300 miles east of Madagascar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for shipping

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ping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and south
 sides; but hardly a single harbour where ships can ride secure
 against those hurricanes which blow during the monsoons. In-
 deed the coast is so surrounded with blind rocks, sunk a few
 feet below the water, that coasting along shore is at all times
 dangerous. On the southern extremity is a volcano, which
 continually throws out flames, smoke, and sulphur, with a
 hideous roaring noise, terrible in the night to mariners. The
 climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refresh-
 ed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from
 the sea and land: sometimes, however, terrible hurricanes
 shake the whole island almost to its foundation; but generally
 without any other bad consequence than frightening the inha-
 bitants. The island abounds in brooks and springs, and in
 fruits, grass, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the
 French have planted there) aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm,
 and other kinds of wood, and fruit trees. Many of the trees
 yield odoriferous gums and raisins, particularly benzoin of an
 excellent sort and in great plenty. The rivers are well stocked
 with fish, the coast with land and sea tortoises, and every part
 of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats.
 Ambergris, coral, and the most beautiful shells, are found
 upon the shore. The woods are full of turtle doves, paro-
 quets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful
 to the eye and pleasant to the palate. The French first settled
 here in the year 1672, after they were drove from the island of
 Madagascar. They have now some considerable towns in the
 island, with a governor; and here their East-India ships touch
 and take in refreshments.

There are a great many more small islands about Madaga-
 car, and on the eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps,
 but no where described.

Leaving therefore the eastern world and the Indies, we now
 turn round the Cape of Good-Hope, which opens to our view
 the Atlantic, an immense ocean, lying between the two grand
 divisions of the globe, having Europe, Asia, and Africa, or
 the old world, on the east; and America, or the new world,
 on the west; towards which division we now steer our course,
 touching in our way at the following islands upon the African
 coast, that have not yet been described, viz. St. Helena, Af-
 cension, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd,
 the Canary and Madeira islands. *See the Map.*

ST. HELENA. The first island on this side the Cape is
 St. Helena, situated in west lon. 6-4, south lat. 16; being
 1200 miles west of the continent of Africa, and 1800 east of
 South

South America. The island is a rock about 21 miles in circumference, very high and very steep, and only accessible at the landing-place, in a small valley at the east side of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually dashing on the shore, it is generally difficult landing even here. There is no other anchorage about the island but at Chapel Vally Bay; and as the wind always blows from the south-east, if a ship overshoots the island ever so little, she cannot recover it again. The English plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn; of the last, however, most part is destroyed by the rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be destroyed; so that the flour they use is almost wholly imported from England; and in times of scarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes instead of bread. Though the island appears on every side a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diversified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden-stuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geese, and turkeys, with which they supply the sailors, taking in exchange shirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of callico, silks, muslins, arrack, sugar, &c.

St. Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese on the festival of the empress, Helena, mother of the emperor Constantine the Great, whose name it still bears. It does not appear that the Portuguese ever planted a colony here: and the English East-India company took possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprize. However, the English, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within the space of a year, and at the same time took three Dutch East-India ships that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the island, most of them descended from English parents. The East-India ships take in water and fresh provisions here, in their way home; but the island is so small, and the wind so much against them outward bound, that they very seldom see it then.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the company, besides a public table well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers are welcome.

ASCENSION. This island is situated under the 7th degree south lat. 600 miles north-west of St. Helena: it received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day;

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sion-day; and is a mountainous barren island, about 20 miles round, and uninhabited; but has a safe convenient harbours where the East-India ships generally touch to furnish themselves with turtles or tortoises, which are very plentiful here, and vastly large, some of them weighing above an hundred pounds each. The sailors going ashore in the night time, frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are sometimes so cruel, as to turn many more than they use, leaving them to die on the shore.

ST. MATTHEW. This is a small island, lying in 6-1 west lon. and 1-30 south lat. 300 miles to the north-east of Ascension, and was also discovered by the Portuguese, who planted and kept possession of it for some time; but afterwards deserting it, this island now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to settle there except a small lake of fresh water.

The four following islands, viz. ST. THOMAS, ANABOA, PRINCES ISLAND, and FERNANDO PO, are situated in the gulph of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were discovered by the Portuguese, and are still in the possession of that nation, and furnish shipping with fresh water and provisions as they pass by.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. These islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the river Gambia, over against which they lie, at the distance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 deg. west lon. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about 20 in number; but some of them, being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fago, Mayo, Bonavista, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio, are the most considerable, and are subject to the Portuguese. The air, generally speaking, is very hot, and in some of them very unwholesome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the descendants of Europeans, and Negroes.

ST. JAGO, where the Portuguese viceroy resides, is the most fruitful, best inhabited, and largest of them all, being 150 miles in circumference; yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits; plenty of roots, garden-stuffs, and they have plenty of hogs and poultry, and some of the prettiest green monkeys, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, situated on the east side, has a good port, and is seldom with-
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out ships, those outward bound to Guinea or the East-Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreshments.

In the island of Mayo or May, immense quantities of salt is made by the heat of the sun from the sea water, which, at spring tides, is received into a sort of pan, formed by a sand-bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. Here the English drive a considerable trade for salt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the vessels that come to load with it, which in some years amount to a hundred or more. The salt costs nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on asses to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ships come hither for a freight of asses, which they carry to Barbadoes and other British plantations. The inhabitants of this island, even the governor and priests, are all Negroes, and speak the Portuguese language. The Negro governor expects a small present from every commander that loads salt, and is pleased to be invited aboard their ships. The sea water is so excessive clear on this coast, that an English sailor who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving.

The island of Fogo is remarkable for being a volcano, continually sending up sulphureous exhalations; and sometimes the flame breaks out like *Ætna*, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice stones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is situated within cannon-shot of Cape Verd, N. lat. 14-43, W. lon. 17-20. and was so called by the Dutch from an island and town of the same name in Holland. It is a small spot not exceeding two miles in circumference, but its importance arises from its situation for trade so near Cape Verd, and has been therefore a bone of contention between European nations. It was first possessed by the Dutch, from whom in 1663 it was taken by the English, but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1677 subdued by the French, in whose possession it remained till the year 1759, when the British arms were every where triumphant, and it was reduced by commodore Keppel, but restored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763.

CANARIES. The Canaries, antiently called the Fortunate Islands, are seven in number, and situated between 12 and 19 deg. west lon. and between 27 and 29 deg. north lat. about 150 miles south-west of Morocco. Their particular names are, Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuertu-

Fuerteventura, and Langarote. These islands enjoy a pure temperate air, and abound in the most delicious fruits, especially grapes, which produce those rich wines that obtain the name of the Canary, whereof the greatest part is exported to England, which in time of peace is computed at ten thousand hogheads annually. The Canaries abound with those little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now so common and so much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel those in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and so extremely fertile, as to produce two harvests in the year. Teneriffe, the largest of these islands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round; a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil; though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak, of which Capt. Glass observes, that in coming in with this island, in clear weather, the Peak may be easily discerned at 120 miles distance, and in sailing from it at 150. The Peak is an ascent in the form of a sugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and according to the account of Sprat, bishop of Rochester, published in the Philosophical Transactions, near three miles perpendicular. This mountain is a volcano, and sometimes throws out such quantities of sulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richest lands into barren deserts. These islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans destroying that state, put a stop to the navigation on the west coast of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the rest of the world, until they were again discovered by the Spaniards in the year 1405, to whom they still belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives resembled the Africans in their stature and complexion when the Spaniards first came among them, their language was different from that spoken on the continent; they retained none of their customs, were masters of no science, and did not know there was any country in the world besides their own.

MADEIRAS. The three islands called the Madciras, are situated, according to the author of Anson's voyage, in a fine climate in 32-27 north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-30 west lon. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many west of Sallee, in Morocco. The largest, from which the rest derive the general name of Madeiras, or rather Mattera, on account of its being formerly almost covered with wood, is about 75 miles long, 60 broad, and 180 in circumference. It is composed of one continued hill, of a considerable height, extending

tending from east to west; the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated and interspersed with vineyards; and in the midst of this slope the merchants have fixed their country seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. There is but one considerable town in the whole island, which is named **Fonchial**, seated on the south part of the island, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the sea, it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is possible for a boat to land, and even here the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it.

Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese in 1519: but others assert that it was first discovered by an Englishman, in the year 1344. Be that as it will, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still almost the only people who inhabit it. The Portuguese, at their first landing, finding it little better than a thick forest, rendered the ground capable of cultivation by setting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing in great abundance the richest wine, sugar, the most delicate fruits, especially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax: it abounds also with boars and other wild beasts, and with all sorts of fowls, besides numerous groves of cedar trees, and those that yield dragons blood, mastic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this isle make the best sweet-meats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The sugar they make is extremely beautiful, and smells naturally of violets. This indeed is said to be the first place in the west, where that manufacture was set on foot, and from thence was carried to the Brazils in America. The Portuguese not finding it so profitable as at first, have pulled up the greatest part of their sugar canes, and planted vineyards in their stead, which produce several sorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the island, malmsey, and tent; of all which the inhabitants make and sell prodigious quantities. No less than 20,000 hogheads of Madeira, it is said, are yearly exported, the greatest part to the West-Indies, especially to Barbadoes, the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when exposed to the sun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is said no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other islands, one is called **Port Santo**, which lies at a small distance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compass, and extremely

which, on the vineyards; and fixed their countenance. There is one which is named and, at the bottom, defended by a high rocky place where the beach is continually beats

known to the ancients, and was at first but others assert that, in the year of its possession of it, it is better than any other cultivated by man, producing the most delicate grapes; together with boars and fowls, besides that yield dragons and serpents of this island. It succeeded wonderfully in making marmalade of Genoa. The island smells naturally sweet in the west, from whence was discovered by the Portuguese not finding the greatest part in their stead, and, particularly in the bay, and tent; and odorous quantities. In Madeira, it is said, the East-Indies, especially enduring a long time being improved, and is taken out. Of the two islands lies at a small compass, and extremely

extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ships may ride with safety against all winds, except the south-west; and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other island is an inconsiderable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we close the account of Africa, we continue our course westward through this immense ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Western Islands, that are situated between 25 and 32 deg. west lon. and between 37 and 40 north lat. 900 miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel or St. Michael, Terceira, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered by the Portuguese, to whom they still belong, and were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All these islands enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air; but are exposed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently suffered; and also by the inundations of surrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits, also cattle, fowl, and fish.

It is remarkable that no poisonous or noxious animal breeds on the Azores, and if carried thither will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largest, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the English in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Terceira is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious, and has good anchorage, but is exposed to the south-east winds. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the residence of the governor of these islands, as well as the bishop.

A M E R I C A.

WE are now to treat of a country of vast extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of art, owes in many respects more to that of nature than any other division of the globe. The particular circumstances of this country require that we should in some measure vary our plan, and, before describing its present state, afford such information with regard to its discovery, as is most necessary for satisfying our readers.

Towards the close of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their support to commerce. An interference of interests inspired a mutual rivalry; but in traffic Venice was much superior. She engrossed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed always, the most valuable in the world, but hitherto intirely carried on through the inland parts of Asia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red-Sea. In this state of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, whose knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much superior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, conceived a project of sailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown rout, and of opening to his country a new source of opulence and power. But this proposal of sailing westward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoese as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as absurd. Stung with disappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, laid his scheme before the court of France, where his reception was still more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII. of England was his next resort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the most opposite imaginable to a great but uncertain design. In Portugal, where the spirit of adventure and discovery about this time began to operate, he had reason to expect better success. But the Portuguese contented themselves with creeping along the coast of Africa, and discovering one cape after another; they had no notion of venturing boldly into the open sea, and of risking the whole at once. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, still remained firm; he became the more enamoured of his design the more difficulty he found in accomplishing it, and he was inspired with that noble enthusiasm which always animates an adventurous

adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only resource, and there, after eight years attendance, he succeeded through the interest of a woman. This was the celebrated queen Isabella, who raised money upon her jewels to defray the expence of his expedition and to do honour to her sex. Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon the most adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested. In this voyage he had a thousand difficulties to contend with; the most striking was the variation of the compass, then first observed, and which seemed to threaten that the laws of nature were altered on an unknown ocean, and the only guide he had left was ready to forsake him. His sailors, always discontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and insisted on their return. But the firmness of the commander, and much more the discovery of land, after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. Columbus first landed on one of the Bahama islands, but there, to his surprize and sorrow, discovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that these could not be the Indies he was in quest of. In steering southward, however, he found the island called Hispaniola, abounding in all the necessaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hospitable people, and what was of still greater consequence, as it insured his favourable reception at home, promising, from some samples he received, considerable quantities of gold. This island therefore he proposed to make the centre of his discoveries: and having left upon it a few of his companions, as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure the necessary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona; Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidst the acclamations of the people, attended by some of the inhabitants, the gold, the arms, utensils, and ornaments of the country he had discovered. This entry into Barcelona was a species of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the islands in that great sea which divides north and south America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. Thus were the West-Indies discovered by seeking a passage to the East; and even after the discovery, still conceived to be a part of the eastern hemisphere. The present success of Columbus, his former disappointments, and the glory attending so unexpected a discovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his designs now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of seventeen sail was immediately

diately prepared; all the necessaries for conquest or discovery were embarked; and 1500 men, among whom were several of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the most ample authority. It is impossible to determine whether the genius of this great man in first conceiving the idea of these discoveries, or his sagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, most deserve our admiration. Instead of hurrying from sea to sea, and from one island to another, which, considering the ordinary motives to action among mankind, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with such a field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curiosity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the discoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himself the unavailing applause of visiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleasure of seeing them. With this view he made for Hispaniola, where he established a colony, and erected forts in the most advantageous grounds for securing the dependence of the natives. Having spent a considerable time in this employment, and laboured for the establishing of this colony with as much zeal and assiduity as if his views had extended no farther, he next proceeded to ascertain the importance of his other discoveries, and to examine what advantages were most likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from some specimens, seemed a rich discovery; but whether it was an island, or a part of some great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To ascertain this point was the present object of his attention. In coasting along the southern shore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled in a multitude of islands, of which he reckoned 160 in one day. These islands, which were well inhabited, and abounding in all the necessaries of life, gave him an opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature where the world expected nothing but the barren ocean; he called them *Jardin de la reina*, or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactress, who was always uppermost in his memory. In the same voyage Jamaica was discovered. But to so many difficulties was Columbus exposed, on an unknown sea, among rocks, shelves, and lands, that he returned to Hispaniola, without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprize.

By the first success of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration; but by a continuance of the same success, their admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain set every spring in motion against him; and there is

no difficulty in finding specious grounds of accusation against such as are employed in the execution of an extensive and complicated plan. An officer was dispatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a spy and informer, and whose presence plainly demonstrated to Columbus the necessity of returning into Europe, for obviating the objections or calumny of his enemies.

It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to set out on a third expedition, still more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He designed to stand to the southward from the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly westward, that he might discover what opening that might afford to India, or what new islands, or what continent might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and suffering numberless inconveniencies from the excessive heats and rains between the tropics, they were at length favoured by a smart gale, and went before it seventeen days to the westward. At the end of this time, a seaman saw land, which was an island on the coast of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having passed this island, and two others which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoco, the admiral was surprized with an appearance he had never seen before; this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occasioned by a conflict betwixt the tide of the sea and the rapid current of the immense river Oronoco. But sailing forward, he plainly discovered that they were in fresh water; and judging rightly that it was improbable any island should supply so vast a river, he began to suspect he had discovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on to the westward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this discovery, he yielded to the uneasiness and distresses of his crew, and bore away for Hispaniola. In the course of this discovery, Columbus landed at several places, where in a friendly manner he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the spirit of discovery spread itself widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wished to acquire the reputation of Columbus, without possessing his abilities. The Portuguese discovered Brazil, which makes at present the most valuable part of their possessions: Cabot, a native of Bristol, discovered the north-east coasts, which now compose the British empire in North-America; and Americus Vespusus, a merchant of Florence, sailed to the southern continent of America, and, being a man of address, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now imposed

on by the name; all the world knows that Columbus was the first discoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the smallest mortifications to which this great man was compelled to submit. For such were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that after discovering the continent, and making settlements in the islands of America, he was treated like a traitor, and carried over to Europe in irons. He enjoyed, however, the glory of rendering the one half of the world known to the other; a glory so much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which disfigured all the exploits of those who came after him, and accomplished the execution of his plan. He died at Valladolid, in 1506. The succeeding governors of Cuba and Hispaniola, endeavoured to purchase the same advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good sense and humanity. These islands contained mines of gold. The Indians only knew where they were placed; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too serious to work by the gentle means of persuasion, hurried them to acts of the most shocking violence and cruelty against those unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treasure. The slaughter once begun, they set no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hispaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had above 600,000. Bartholomew de la Casas, a witness of those barbarous depopulations, says that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy savages, almost naked and unarmed, were pursued like deer into the thick of the forests, devoured by dogs, killed with gun-shot, or surprized and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only visited the continent: from what they saw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a still more valuable conquest. Fernando Cortez is dispatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horses, and a small number of field pieces. With this inconsiderable force, he proposes to subdue the most powerful state on the continent of America: this was the empire of Mexico; rich, powerful, and inhabited by millions of Indians, passionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whose fame in arms struck terror into the neighbouring nations, and extended over one half the globe. Never history, to be true, was more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico had subsisted for ages: its inhabitants were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a polished and intelligent people. They
knew,

knew, like the Egyptians of old, whose wisdom is still admired in this particular, that the year consisted nearly of 365 days. Their superiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the sure basis of laws combined with religion, seemed to bid defiance to time itself. Mexico, the capital of the empire, situated in the middle of a spacious lake, was the noblest monument of American industry: it communicated with the continent by immense causeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of stone, its squares and market places, the shops which glittered with gold and silver, and the sumptuous palaces of Montezuma, some erected on columns of jasper, and containing whatever was most rare, curious, or useful. But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it against the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with feeble opposition from the nations along the coast of Mexico, who were terrified at their first appearance: the warlike animals, on which the Spanish officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which issued from their hands, the wooden castles which had wafted them over the ocean, struck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover until it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched they spared no age or sex, nothing sacred or profane. At last, the inhabitants of Tlascala, and some other states on the coast, despairing of being able to oppose them, enter into their alliance, and join armies with those terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and in his progress discovers a volcano of sulphur and saltpetre, whence he could supply himself with powder. Montezuma heard of his progress, without daring to oppose it. This sovereign commanded 30 vassals of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants, armed with bows and arrows, and yet he dares not resist a handful of Spaniards aided by a few Americans whose allegiance would be shaken by the first reverse of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and the fame of the Spanish victories, which always marched before them.

By sending a rich present of gold, which only whetted the Spanish avarice, Montezuma hastened the approach of the enemy. No opposition is made to their entry into his capital. A palace is set apart for Cortez and his companions, who are already treated as the masters of the new world. He had good reason, however, to distrust the affected politeness of this emperor, under which he suspected some plot for his destruction was concealed; but he had no pretence for violence;

Montezuma

Montezuma loaded him with kindness, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was surrounded with artillery, the most frightful of all engines to the Americans. At last a circumstance fell out which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hostilities. In order to secure a communication by sea to receive the necessary reinforcements, he had erected a fort, and left a small garrison behind him at Vera Cruz, which has since become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He understood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garrison in his absence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action, that Montezuma himself was privy to this violence, and had issued orders that the head of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to destroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in person to the emperor, attended by a few of his most experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez seemed extremely ready to believe him, though at the same time he alleged that the Spaniards in general would never be persuaded of it unless he returned along with them to their residence, which would remove all jealousy between the two nations. The success of this interview shewed the superiority of the European address. A powerful monarch, in the middle of his own palace, and surrounded by his guards, gave himself up a prisoner, to be disposed of according to the inclination of a few gentlemen who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine by which every thing might be accomplished. The Americans had the highest respect, or rather a superstitious veneration for their emperor. Cortez therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and at the same time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his tastes and passions, maintained the easy sovereignty of Mexico, by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their respect? Montezuma was the first to teach them more politeness. Was there a tumult, excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards? Montezuma ascended the battlements of his prison, and harangued his Mexicans into order and submission. This farce continued a long while: but on one of these occasions, when Montezuma was shamefully disgracing his character by justifying the enemies of his country, a stone, from an unknown hand, struck him on the temple, which in a few days occasioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who co-operated so strongly

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with the Spaniards, elect a new prince, the famous Gati-mozin, who from the beginning discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct the unhappy Mexicans rushed against those very men, whom a little before they had offered to worship. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly established to be expelled from Mexico. The immense tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, besides an amazing quantity of precious stones, a fifth part of which was distributed among the soldiers, stimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to perish rather than part with so precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no small efforts for independence; but all their valour, and despair itself, gave way before what they called the Spanish thunder. Gatiuzin and the empress were taken prisoners. This was the prince who, when he lay stretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him discover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, said to his high priest, condemned to the same punishment, and making hideous cries, "Do you take me to lay on a bed of roses?" The high priest remained silent, and died in an act of obedience to his sovereign. Cortez, by getting a second emperor into his hands, made a complete conquest of Mexico; with which the Castile D'Or, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez, and his soldiers, were employed in reducing Mexico, they got intelligence of another great empire, situated towards the equinoctial line, and the tropic of Capricorn, which was said to abound in gold and silver, and precious stones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near thirty degrees, and was the only other country in America, which deserved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened, that the Spanish government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, they did not chuse to adventure on new enterprizes; certain it is, that this extensive country, more important than Mexico itself, was reduced by the endeavours, and at the expence, of three private persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a priest, and a man of considerable fortune. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low education. Pizarro, the soul of the enterprize, could neither read nor write. They sailed over
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into Spain, and without difficulty, obtained a grant of what they should conquer. Pizarro then set out for the conquest of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horse, and 12 small pieces of cannon, drawn by slaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the same prejudices with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spanish nation, and were beside, of a character still more soft and unwarlike, it need not surprize us, after what has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that with this inconsiderable force, Pizarro should make a deep impression on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumstances likewise which conspired to assist him, and which, as they discover somewhat of the history, religion, and state of the human mind in this immense continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of those uncommon men who, calm and dispassionate themselves, can observe the passions of their fellow creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He observed that the people of Peru were naturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the sun. He pretended therefore to be descended from that luminary, whose worship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled to bear. By this story, romantic as it appears, he easily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his jurisdiction; a larger he still subdued by his arms; but both the force, and the deceit, he employed for the most laudable purposes. He united and civilized the distressed and barbarous people; he bent them to laws and arts; he softened them by the institutions of a benevolent religion; in short, there was no part of America, where agriculture and the arts were so assiduously cultivated, and where the people were of so mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes succeeded Mango, distinguished by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as descendants of their great God the Sun. The twelfth of these was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guaiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spanish Peru. To secure himself in the possession, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and of this marriage was sprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Huefcar, of a different mother, had claimed the succession to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Huefcar, as a

prisoner, in the tower of Cusco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble, and disjointed state, was the kingdom of Peru, when Pizarro made his arrival. The ominous predictions of religion too, as in most other cases, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the subjection of the empire, by unknown persons, whose description exactly corresponded to the appearance of the Spaniards. In these circumstances, Atabalipa, instead of opposing the Spaniards, set himself to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whose temper partook of the meanness of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with those he called Barbarians, but who, however, though less acquainted with the cruel art of destroying their fellow creatures, were more civilized than himself. While he was engaged in conference therefore with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked the guards of that prince, and having butchered 5000 of them, as they were pressing forward, without regard to their particular safety, to defend the sacred person of their monarch, seized Atabalipa himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. Pizarro, with the sovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the master of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as strongly attached to their emperor, as the Mexicans themselves. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat of his ransom. On this occasion the ancient ornaments, amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treasures of the most magnificent temples, were brought out to save him, who was the support of the kingdom, and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negotiation, by which he proposed, without releasing the emperor, to get into his possession an immense quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro caused some embarrassment in his affairs. The friendship, or rather the external shew of friendship between these men, was solely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprising spirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous, that might gratify their ruling passion. When their interests therefore happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any measures could be kept between them, Pizarro expected to enjoy the most considerable share of the treasure, arising from the emperor's ransom, because he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro insisted on being upon an equal footing; and at length, lest the common cause might suffer by any rupture between them, this disposition was agreed to. The ransom is paid in without delay, a sum exceeding their conception, but not capable to gratify their avarice,

avarice. It exceeded 1,500,000 l. sterling, and considering the value of money at that time, was prodigious: on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the shares of the chief commanders and officers, each private soldier had above 2000 l. English money. With such fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to be subjected to the rigours of military discipline. They insisted on being disbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand, sensible that avarice would still detain a number in his army, and that those who returned with such magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to pursue the same plan for acquiring gold. These wise reflections were abundantly verified; it was impossible to send out better recruiting officers, than those who had themselves so much profited by the field; new soldiers constantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

This immense ransom was only a farther reason for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they discovered whether he had another treasure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince, from whom they expected no farther advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, on account of some instances of craft and policy, which he observed in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs, it is certain, that by his command Atabalipa was put to death. To justify this cruel proceeding, a *sham* charge was exhibited against the unhappy prince, in which he was accused of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumstances of equal impertinence. The only just ground of accusation against him was, that his brother Huefcar had been put to death by his command; and even this was considerably palliated, because Huefcar had been plotting his destruction, that he might establish himself on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility set up the full brother of Huefcar; Pizarro set up a son of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to establish themselves by the assistance of the army. These distractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here at another time, were at present rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought against one another, their battles accustomed the harmless people to blood; and such is the preference of a spirit of any kind raised in a nation to a total lethargy, that in the course of those quarrels among

themselves, the inhabitants of Peru assumed some courage against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cause of all their calamities. The losses which the Spaniards met with in these quarrels, though inconsiderable in themselves, were rendered dangerous, by lessening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preserve among the inhabitants of the new world. This consideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and this interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city Lima, and in settling the Spaniards in the country. But as soon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war against the Indians, and after many difficulties made himself master of Cusco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the sea-coast, to the southward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the southward of Pizarro's government. This division occasioned a warm dispute between them, each reckoning Cusco within his own district. But the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He persuaded his rival, that the country which really belonged to him, lay to the southward of Cusco, and that it was no way inferior in riches, and might be as easily conquered as Peru. He offered him his assistance in the expedition, the success of which he did not even call in question.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of subduing a kingdom for himself, listened to his advice; and joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own, as he judged necessary, penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; losing many of his men as he passed over mountains of an immense height, and always covered with snow. He reduced, however, a very considerable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war, not to take advantage of the division of the Spanish troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indisposed, and Almagro removed at a great distance, they were well nigh successful. The latter, however, no sooner got notice of the siege of Cusco, than, relinquishing all views of distant conquests, he returned, to secure the grand object of their former labours. He raised the siege with infinite slaughter of the assailants; but having obtained possession of this city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This dispute occasioned a long and bloody struggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the resentment fierce on both sides, because

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the fate of the vanquished was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the security of a rival, in whose dangers and triumphs he had long shared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprize, he had been intimately connected. During the course of this civil war, many Peruvians served in the Spanish armies, and learned, from the practice of Christians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable resolution. They saw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguishable resentment and avarice, and they conjectured that these passions would never permit their contests to subside. Let us retire, said they, from among them, let us fly to our mountains; they will speedily destroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. This resolution was instantly put in practice; the Peruvians dispersed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each side been exactly equal, this singular policy of the natives of Peru, might have been attended with success. But the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never since ventured to make head against the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now sole master of the field, and of the richest empire in the world, was still urged on by his ambition, to undertake new enterprizes. The southern countries of America, into which he had some time before dispatched Almagro, offered the richest conquest. Towards this quarter the mountain of Potosi, composed of entire silver, had been discovered, the shell of which only remains at present. He therefore followed the tract of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, passed the Andes, and sailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons: an immense navigation, which discovered a rich and delightful country, but as it is mostly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever since, neglected it. Pizarro meeting with repeated success, and having no superior to controul, nor rival to keep him within bounds, now gave loose reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the basest tyranny and cruelty against all who had not concurred in his designs. This conduct raised a conspiracy against him, to which he fell a sacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himself had founded. The partisans of old Almagro, declared his son of the same name their viceroy. But the greater part of the nation, though extremely well satisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited
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the orders of Charles V. then king of Spain, who sent over Vaca di Castro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wisdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the most advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother country. By his prudent management the mines of la Plata and Potosi, which were formerly a matter of private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were silenced or crushed; young Almagro, who would harken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, since the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was restored to Peru. It seems, however, that De Castro had not been sufficiently skilled, in gaining the favour of the Spanish ministry, by proper bribes or promises, which a ministry would always expect from the governor of so rich a country. By their advice, a council was sent over to controul de Castro, and the colony was again unsettled. The parties but just extinguished, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, set himself at the head of his brother's partisans, with whom many new male-contented had united. It was now no longer a dispute between governors, about the bounds of their jurisdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal submission to the king. He strengthened daily, and even went so far as to behead a governor, who was sent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spanish fleet in the South Seas, by whose means he proposed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain, and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the situation of affairs, when the court of Spain, sensible of their mistake in not sending into America, men whose character and virtue only, and not importunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, dispatched with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gasca, a man differing only from Castro, by being of a more mild and insinuating behaviour, but with the same love of justice, the same greatness of soul, and the same disinterested spirit. All those who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt, flocked under his standard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gasca, forsook their old connections: the admiral was gained over by insinuation to return to his duty; and Pizarro himself was offered a full indemnity, provided he should return to the allegiance of the Spanish crown. But so intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard, rather than submit to an officer of Spain. With those of his partisans therefore, who still continued to adhere to his interest, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered and

taken prisoner. His execution followed soon after; and thus the brother of him, who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a sacrifice to the security of the Spanish dominion over that country.

The conquest of the great empires of Mexico and Peru, is the only part of the American history, which deserves to be treated under the present head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent, or of the islands, if it contains either instruction or entertainment, shall be handled under these particular countries. We now proceed to treat of the manners, government, religion, and whatever composes the character of the natives of America; and as these are extremely similar all over this part of the globe, we shall speak of them in general, in order to save continual repetitions, noticing at the same time, when we enter upon the description of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants of each.

On the original Inhabitants of AMERICA.

THE discovery of America has not only opened a new source of wealth to the busy and commercial part of Europe, but an extensive field of speculation to the philosopher, who would trace the character of man under various degrees of refinement, and observe the movements of the human heart, or the operations of the human understanding, when untutored by science, and untainted with corruption. So striking seemed the disparity between the inhabitants of Europe, and the natives of America, that some speculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impossible they should be of the same species, or derived from one common source. This conclusion, however, is extremely ill founded. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the necessaries of life, the force of custom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumstances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be discovered among them all, notwithstanding the various shades which characterise nations, and distinguish them from each other.

When the thirst of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immersed in what they reckoned barbarity, but which, however, was a state of honest independence, and noble simplicity.

after; and thus for the crown of Spanish dominion Mexico and Peru, is which deserves to be s to the reduction the islands, if it shall be handled proceed to treat of whatever composes and as these are globe, we shall continual repe- re enter upon the ever is peculiar or

plcity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively speaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almost every European art; even agriculture itself, the most useful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very sparingly. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the necessaries of life, was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and forests supplied in great abundance. This exercise, which among them is a most serious occupation, gives a strength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The same cause perhaps renders their bodies in general, where the rays of the sun are not too violent, uncommonly straight and well proportioned: Their muscles are firm and strong; their bodies and heads flattish, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce, their hair long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse. The colour of their skin is a reddish brown, admired among them, and heightened by the constant use of bears fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumstances and way of life. A people who are constantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious subsistence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be supposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or a high flow of spirits. The Indians therefore are in general grave even to sadness; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to some nations of Europe, and they despise it. Their behaviour to those about them is regular, modest, and respectful. Ignorant of the arts of amusement, of which that of saying trifles agreeably is one of the most considerable, they never speak but when they have something important to observe; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with some meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almost continually engaged in pursuit, which to them are of the highest importance. Their subsistence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands, and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be lost by the smallest inattention to the designs of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the necessaries of life in greatest abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are for the same reason extremely small, when compared with civilised societies, in which industry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vast number of individuals, whom a complicated

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luxury renders useful to one another. These small tribes live at an immense distance; they are separated by a desert frontier, and hid in the bosom of impenetrable and almost boundless forests.

There is established in each society a certain species of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with exceeding little variation; because over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly similar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great instruments of subjection in polished societies, an American has no method by which he can render himself considerable among his companions, but by a superiority in personal qualities of body or mind. But as nature has not been very lavish in her personal distinctions, where all enjoy the same education, all are pretty much equal, and will desire to remain so. Liberty therefore is the prevailing passion of the Americans, and their government, under the influence of this sentiment, is better secured than by the wisest political regulations. They are very far, however, from despising all sort of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wisdom, which experience has conferred on the aged, and they enlist under the banners of the chief, in whose valour and military address they have learned to repose their confidence. In every society therefore there is to be considered the power of the chief and of the elders; and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a species of aristocracy. Among those tribes which are most engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, because the idea of having a military leader, was the first source of his superiority, and the continual exigencies of the state requiring such a leader, will continue to support and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather persuasive than coercive; he is revered as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice, and one act of ill-judged violence would pull him from the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be considered as an aristocracy, have no more power. In some tribes indeed there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whose influence being constantly augmented by time, is more considerable. But this source of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex, to the merit of our contemporaries, that of their fore-fathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In most countries therefore, age alone is sufficient for acquiring respect, influence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only source of knowledge
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among a barbarous people. Among those persons business is conducted with the utmost simplicity, and which may recall to those who are acquainted with antiquity a picture of the most early ages. The heads of families meet together in a house or cabin, appointed for the purpose. Here the business is discussed, and here those of the nation, distinguished for their eloquence or wisdom, have an opportunity of displaying those talents. Their orators, like those of Homer, express themselves in a bold figurative style, stronger than refined, or rather softened nations can well bear, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive. When the business is over, and they happen to be well provided in food, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. The feast is accompanied with a song, in which the real, or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though like those of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind, and their music and dancing accompanies every feast.

It often happens, that those different tribes or nations, scattered as they are at an immense distance from one another, meet in their excursions after prey. If there subsists no animosity between them, which seldom is the case, they behave in the most friendly and courteous manner. But if they happen to be in a state of war, or if there has been no previous intercourse between them, all who are not friends, are deemed enemies, they fight with the most savage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they enjoy, it is left to the women. Their most common motive for entering into war, when it does not arise from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themselves for the death of some lost friends, or to acquire prisoners, who may assist them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their society. These wars are either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case, all the young men, who are disposed to go out to battle, for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination, give a bit of wood to the chief, as a token of their design to accompany him. For every thing among these people is transacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief, who is to conduct them, fasts several days, during which he converses with no one, and is particularly careful to observe his dreams, which the presumption natural to savages, generally renders as favourable as he could desire. A variety of other superstitions and ceremonies are observed. One of the most hideous is setting the war kettle

on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies, which among some nations must formerly have been the case, since they still continue to express it in clear terms, and use an emblem significant of the ancient usage. Then they dispatch a porcelane, or large shell to their allies, inviting them to come along, and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

“ A generous friendship no cold medium knows,
 “ But with one love, with one resentment glows.”

They think that those in their alliance must not only adopt their enmities, but have their resentment wound up to the same pitch with themselves. And indeed no people carry their friendships, or their resentment, so far as they do; and this is what should be expected from their peculiar circumstances; that principle in human nature, which is the spring of the social affections, acts with so much the greater force, the more it is restrained. The Americans, who live in small societies, who see few objects and few persons, become wonderfully attached to these objects and persons, and cannot be deprived of them, without feeling themselves miserable. Their ideas are too confined, their breasts are too narrow to entertain the sentiments of general benevolence, or even of ordinary humanity. But this very circumstance, while it makes them cruel and savage to an incredible degree, towards those with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendships, and to the common tie which unites the members of the same tribe, or of those different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this reflection, some facts we are going to relate, would excite our wonder without informing our reason, and we should be bewildered in a number of particulars seemingly opposite to one another, without being sensible of the general cause from which they proceed.

Having finished all the ceremonies previous to the war, they issue forth with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermillion, which give them a most horrid appearance. Then they exchange their cloaths with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them to a considerable distance to receive those last tokens of eternal friendship.

The great qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprize; and indeed in these they are superior to all nations in the world. Accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, having their perceptions

sharpened

sharpened by keen necessity, and living in every respect according to nature, their external senses have a degree of acuteness which at first view appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smok of their fires, which they smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and distinguish with the utmost facility. They even distinguish the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the precise time when they passed, where an European could not, with all his glasses, distinguish footsteps at all. These circumstances, however, are of small importance, because their enemies are no less acquainted with them. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making use of any thing by which they might run the danger of a discovery. They light no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals: they lie close to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that closes the rear, diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refresh themselves, scouts are sent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place, where they suspect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes, and while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, or make prisoners of as many as they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation. But when the enemy is apprised of their design, and coming on in arms against them, they throw themselves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to resemble. Then they allow a part to pass unmolested, when all at once, with a tremendous shout, rising up from their ambush, they pour a storm of musket bullets on their foes. The party attacked, returns the same cry. Every one shelters himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground to give a second fire. Thus does the battle continue until the one party is so much weakened, as to be incapable of farther resistance. But if the force on each side continues nearly equal, the fierce spirits of the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They abandon this distant war, they rush upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and insulting their enemies with the bitterest reproaches. A cruel combat ensues, death appears in a thousand hideous forms which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouse the fury of savages. They trample,

they insult over the dead bodies, tearing the scalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beasts, and sometimes devouring their flesh. The slaughter rages on till it meets with no resistance, then the prisoners are secured, those unhappy men, whose fate is a thousand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors set up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have lost. They approach in a melancholy and severe gloom to their own village, a messenger is sent to announce their arrival, and the women with frightful shrieks come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their husbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the elders a circumstantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people, and as he mentions the names of those who have fallen, the shrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in these cries, according as each is most connected with the deceased, by blood or friendship. The last ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable transition, they pass in a moment from the bitterness of sorrow, to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the prisoners, whose fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characterises the savages.

We have already mentioned the strength of their affections or resentments. United as they are in small societies, connected within themselves by the firmest ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the most intense warmth within the walls of their own village, seldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their resentment is easily extended from the individual, who has injured them, to all others of the same tribe. The prisoners, who have themselves the same feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The person, who has taken the captive, attends him to the cottage, where, according to the distribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to supply the loss of a citizen. If those who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occasion for him, or their resentment for the loss of their friends be too high to endure the sight of any connected with those who were concerned in it, they sentence him to death. All those who have met with the same severe sentence being collected, the whole nation is assembled at the execution, as for some great solemnity. A scaffold is erected, and the prisoners are tied to the stake, where

where they commence their death-song, and prepare for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other side, are determined to put it to the proof, by the most refined and exquisite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe made red hot, which he smoaks like tobacco; then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they pull off the flesh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they sear immediately with red hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately; they pull off this flesh, thus mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood in an enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, whilst others are employed in pulling and extending the limbs in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours, and sometimes, such is the strength of the savages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard of torments, often falls into so profound a sleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him and renew his sufferings. He is again fastened to the stake, and again they renew their cruelty; they stick him all over with small matches of wood, that easily takes fire but burns slowly; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, after having burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires; after having so mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind, and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is succeeded by a feast as barbarous.

The

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than furies, act their parts, and even outdo the men in this scene of horror, while the principal persons of the country sit round the stake, smoaking and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, smoaks too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there seems a contest between him and them which shall exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them, with a firmness and constancy almost above human: not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance escapes him; he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exasperate them to a perfect madness of rage and fury, he continues his insults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out himself more exquisite methods, and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwise, as it would be for any European to suffer as an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early institution, and a ferocious thirst of glory. *I am brave and intrepid,* exclaims the savage in the face of his tormentors, *I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; those who fear them are cowards; they are less than women; life is nothing to those that have courage: may my enemies be confounded with despair and rage; Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the last drop.*

I do not dwell upon these circumstances of cruelty, which so degrade human nature, out of choice; but, as all who mention the customs of this people have insisted upon their behaviour in this respect very particularly, and as it seems necessary to give a true idea of their character, I did not chuse to omit it. And what is still more important, it serves to shew in the strongest light, to what a pitch the passions of men may be carried, when untamed by the refinements of polished society, when let loose from the government of reason, and uninfluenced by the dictates of Christianity; a religion that teaches compassion to our enemies, which is neither known nor practised in other institutions; and it will make us more sensible than some appear to be, of the value of commerce, the arts of a civilized life, and the light of literature; which, if they have abated the force of some of the natural virtues, by the luxury which
attends

attends them, have taken out likewise the sting of our natural vices, and softened the ferocity of the human race.

Nothing in the history of mankind, as I have already observed, forms a stronger contrast than this cruelty of the savages towards those with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who consist of all those who live in the same village, or are in alliance with it : among these all things are common ; and this, though it may in part arise from their not possessing very distinct notions of separate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the strength of their attachment ; because in every thing else, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to serve their friends. Their houses, their provision, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a guest. Has any one of these succeeded ill in his hunting ? Has his harvest failed ? or is his house burned ? He feels no other effect of his misfortune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow citizens ; but to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, until by some treachery or surprize he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his resentment ; no distance of place great enough to protect the object ; he crosses the steepest mountains, he pierces the most impracticable forests, and traverses the most hideous bogs and deserts for several hundreds of miles ; bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprizing his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities, even to the eating of his flesh. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity ; and such indeed in general is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have said respecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit observing the force of their friendship, which principally appears by the treatment of their dead. When any one of the society is cut off, he is lamented by the whole : on this occasion a thousand ceremonies are practised, denoting the most lively sorrow. Of these, the most remarkable, as it discovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order, and nothing is omitted that it may be celebrated with the utmost pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be present, and to join in the solemnity. At this time all who have died since the last solemn occasion, (which is renewed every ten years among some tribes, and every

every eight among others) are taken out of their graves: those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcases.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general disinterment. I cannot describe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the most authentic account of those nations.

Without question, says he, the opening of these tombs displays one of the most striking scenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human misery, in so many images of death, wherein she seems to take a pleasure to paint herself in a thousand various shapes of horror, in the several carcases, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a sort of parchment upon their bones; some look as if they were baked and sinoaked, without any appearance of rottenness; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction; whilst others are all swarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to strike us most, the horror of so shocking a sight, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deserves our admiration more than that eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderness; gathering up carefully even the smallest bones; handling the carcases, disgustful as they are, with every thing loathsome, cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders through tiresome journeys of several days, without being discouraged from the offensiveness of the smell, and without suffering any other emotions to arise than those of regret, for having lost persons who were so dear to them in their lives, and so lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feast in honour of the dead, during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses which took place between them and their friends are piously called to mind. The strangers, who have come sometimes many hundred miles to be present on the occasion, join in the tender condolance; and the women, by frightful shrieks, demonstrate that they are pierced with the sharpest sorrow. Then the dead bodies are carried from the cabins for the general reinterment. A great pit is dug in the ground, and thither, at a certain time, each person attended by his family and friends, marches in solemn silence, bearing the dead body of a son, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or the dust of those which were quite corrupted, are deposited

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deposited in the pit: then the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they possess most valuable is interred with the dead. The strangers are not wanting in their generosity, and confer those presents which they have brought along with them for the purpose. Then all present go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preserve with the most religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with intire new furs, and over these with bark, on which they throw stones, wood, and earth. Then taking their last farewell, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned that in this ceremony the savages offer, as presents to the dead, whatever they value most highly. This custom, which is universal among them, arises from a rude notion of the immortality of the soul. They believe this doctrine most firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the soul is separated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it still continues to hover around it, and to require and take delight in the same things with which it formerly was pleased. After a certain time, however, it forsakes this dreary mansion, and departs far westward into the land of spirits. They have even gone so far as to make a distinction between the inhabitants of the other world; some, they imagine, particularly those who in their life-time have been fortunate in war, possess a high degree of happiness, have a place for hunting and fishing, which never fails, and enjoy all sensual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The souls of those, on the contrary, who happen to be conquered or slain in war, are extremely miserable after death. A future state therefore is not at all considered among the savages as a place of retribution, as the reward of humble virtue, or as the punishment of prosperous vice. They rather judge of our happiness in the next world by what we have enjoyed in the present.

Their taste for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a strong bias to their religion. Areskoui, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field, and according as his disposition is more or less favourable to them, they conclude they will be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun and moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods: traditions which resemble the Grecian fables, but which are still more absurd and inconsistent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and except when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no sort of worship. Like all rude nations, however, they are strongly addicted to superstition.

They

They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii or spirits, who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happiness or misery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diseases proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The ministers of the genii are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These jugglers are supposed to be inspired by the good genii, most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed by the genii whether they will get over the disease, and in what way they must be treated. But these spirits are extremely simple in their system of physic, and, in almost every disease, direct the juggler to the same remedy. The patient is inclosed in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well soaked with the warm vapour and his own sweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This coarse method, which costs many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewise the use of some specifics of wonderful efficacy; and all the savages are dextrous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of these remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are administered.

A general Description of AMERICA.

THIS great western continent, frequently denominated the new world, extends from the 80 deg. north, to the 56 deg. south lat; and where its breadth is known, from the 35 to the 136 deg. of west lon. from London, stretching between 8 and 9000 miles in length, and in its greatest breadth 3690. It sees both hemispheres, has two summers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is washed by the two great oceans. To the eastward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa. To the west it has the Pacific, or great South-Sea, by which it is separated from Asia. By these seas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is composed of two great continents, one on the north, the other upon the south, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a sort of Isthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part at Darien, so extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only 60 miles over. In the great gulph, which is formed between the Isthmus, and

the northern and southern continents, lie an infinite multitude of islands, many of them large, most of them fertile, and denominated the West-Indies, in contradistinction to the countries and islands of Asia, beyond the cape of Good-Hope, which are called the East-Indies.

Before we begin to treat of separate countries in their order, we must according to just method take notice of those mountains and rivers, which disdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. For though America in general be not a mountainous country, it has the greatest mountains in the world. In south America the Andes, or Cordilleras, run from north to south along the coast of the Pacific ocean. They exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe; extending from the Isthmus of Darien, to the streights of Magellan, they divide the whole southern parts of America, and run a length of 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length, for though in part within the torrid zone, they are constantly covered with snow. In North America, which is chiefly composed of gentle ascents, or level plains, we know of no considerable mountains, except those towards the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of our settlements, separating our colonies from Canada and Louisiana, which we call the Apalachian, or Alegeney mountains; if that may be considered as a mountain, which upon one side is extremely lofty, but upon the other is nearly on a level with the rest of the country.

America is, without question, that part of the globe which is best watered; and that not only for the support of life, and all the purposes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourse of each part with the others. In North America, such is the wisdom and goodness of the Creator of the universe, those vast tracts of country, situated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immense and unknown distance from the ocean, are watered by inland seas, called the Lakes of Canada, which not only communicate with each other, but give rise to several great rivers, particularly the Mississippi, running from north to south till it falls into the gulph of Mexico, after a course, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progress the vast tribute of the Illinois, the Misfaures, the Ohio, and other great rivers scarcely inferior to the Rhine, or the Danube; and on the north, the river St. Laurence, running a contrary course from the Mississippi, till it empties itself into the ocean near Newfoundland; all of them being almost navigable to their heads, lay open the inmost recesses of this great continent, and afford such an inlet for commerce, as must produce the greatest advantages, whenever

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the country adjacent shall come to be fully inhabited, and by an industrious and civilized people. The eastern side of North America, which makes a part of the British empire, besides the noble rivers Hudson, Delaware, Susquehana, and Potowmack, supplies several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation: hence many parts of our settlements are so advantageously intersected with navigable rivers and creeks, that our planters, without exaggeration, may be said to have each a harbour at his door.

South America is, if possible, in this respect even more fortunate. It supplies much the two largest rivers in the world, the river of Amazonas, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plate River. The first rising in Peru, not far from the South Sea, passes from west to east, and falls into the ocean between Brazil and Guiana, after a course of more than 3000 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata, rises in the heart of the country, and having its strength gradually augmented, by an accession of many powerful streams, discharges itself with such vehemence into the sea, as to make its taste fresh for many leagues from land. Besides these there are other rivers in South America, of which the Oronouquo is the most considerable.

A country of such vast extent on each side of the equator, must necessarily have a variety of soils as well as climates. It is a treasury of nature, producing most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and high perfection. The gold and silver of America has supplied Europe with such immense quantities of those valuable metals, that they are become vastly more common; so that the gold and silver of Europe now bears little proportion to the high price set upon them before the discovery of America.

This country also produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other valuable stones, which by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewise to lower their value. To these, which are chiefly the production of Spanish America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use, and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the British empire in this part of the world. Of these are the plentiful supplies of cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, brazil, fustic, pimento, lignum vitæ, rice, ginger, cocoa, or the chocolate nut, sugar, cotton, tobacco; banillas, red-wood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and China, that valuable article in medicine the Jesuit's bark, mechoacan, sassafras, sarsaparilla, cassia, tamarinds,

hides,

hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the discovery of America, we were either entire strangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Asia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoese, who then engrossed the trade of the eastern world.

This continent has also a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicats, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots and plants; and so fertile is the soil, that many exotic productions are nourished in as great perfection, as in their native ground.

Though the Indians still live in the quiet possession of many large tracts, America so far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by three European nations, the Spaniards, English, and Portuguese. The Spaniards, who, as they first discovered it, have the largest and richest portion, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana, in North America, to the streights of Magellan in the south sea, excepting the large province of Brazil, which belongs to Portugal; for though the French and Dutch have some forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the southern continent.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America is Great Britain, who derives her claim to North America, from the first discovery of that continent, by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated solely to an island upon its coast. It was a long time before we made any attempt to settle this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, first shewed the way by planting a colony in the southern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his mistress queen Elizabeth.

The French indeed, from this period until the conclusion of the late war, laid a claim to, and actually possessed Canada and Louisiana, comprehending all that extensive inland country, reaching from Hudson's Bay on the north, to Mexico and the gulph of the same name on the south; regions which all Europe could not people in the course of many ages: but no territory however extensive, no empire however boundless, could gratify the ambition of that aspiring nation; hence, under the most solemn treaties, they continued in a state of hostility, making gradual advances upon the back of our settlements,

lements, and rendering their acquisitions more secure and permanent by a chain of forts, well supplied with all the implements of war. At the same time they laboured incessantly to gain the friendship of the Indians, whom they not only trained to the use of arms, but infused into these savages the most unfavourable notion of the English, and the strength of their nation. The British colonies thus hemmed in, and confined to a slip of land along the sea coast, by an ambitious and powerful nation, the rivals and the natural enemies of Great Britain, began to take the alarm. The British empire in America, yet in its infancy, was threatened with a total dissolution. The colonies, in their distress, called out aloud to the mother country. The bulwarks, and the thunder of England, were sent to their relief, accompanied with powerful armies, well appointed, and commanded by a set of heroes, the Scipios of the present age. A long war succeeded, which ended gloriously for Great Britain; for after oceans of blood were spilt, and every inch of ground bravely disputed, the French were not only driven from Canada, and its dependancies, but obliged to relinquish all that part of Louisiana, lying on the east side of the Mississippi.

Thus at an immense expence, and with the loss of many brave men, our colonies were preserved, secured, and extended so far, as to render it difficult to ascertain the precise bounds of our empire in North America, to the northern and western sides; for to the northward, it should seem that we might extend our claims quite to the pole itself, nor does any nation seem inclined to dispute the property of this northernmost country with us. If we should choose to take our stand upon the northern extremity, and look towards the south, we have a territory extending in that aspect, from the pole to Cape Florida in the gulph of Mexico, N. lat. 25, and consequently near 4000 miles long in a direct line; which is the more valuable, as it includes the most temperate climates of this new world, and such as are best suited to British constitutions. But to the westward, our boundaries reach to nations unknown even to the native Indians of Canada. If we might hazard a conjecture, it is nearly equal to the extent of all Europe. This vast empire is all the way washed by the Atlantic ocean on the east, and on the south by the gulph of Mexico. We have already taken notice of the river St. Lawrence, the Mississippi, the lakes of Canada, and other great bodies of water, which fertilize and enrich its northern and western boundaries, as well as the interior parts.

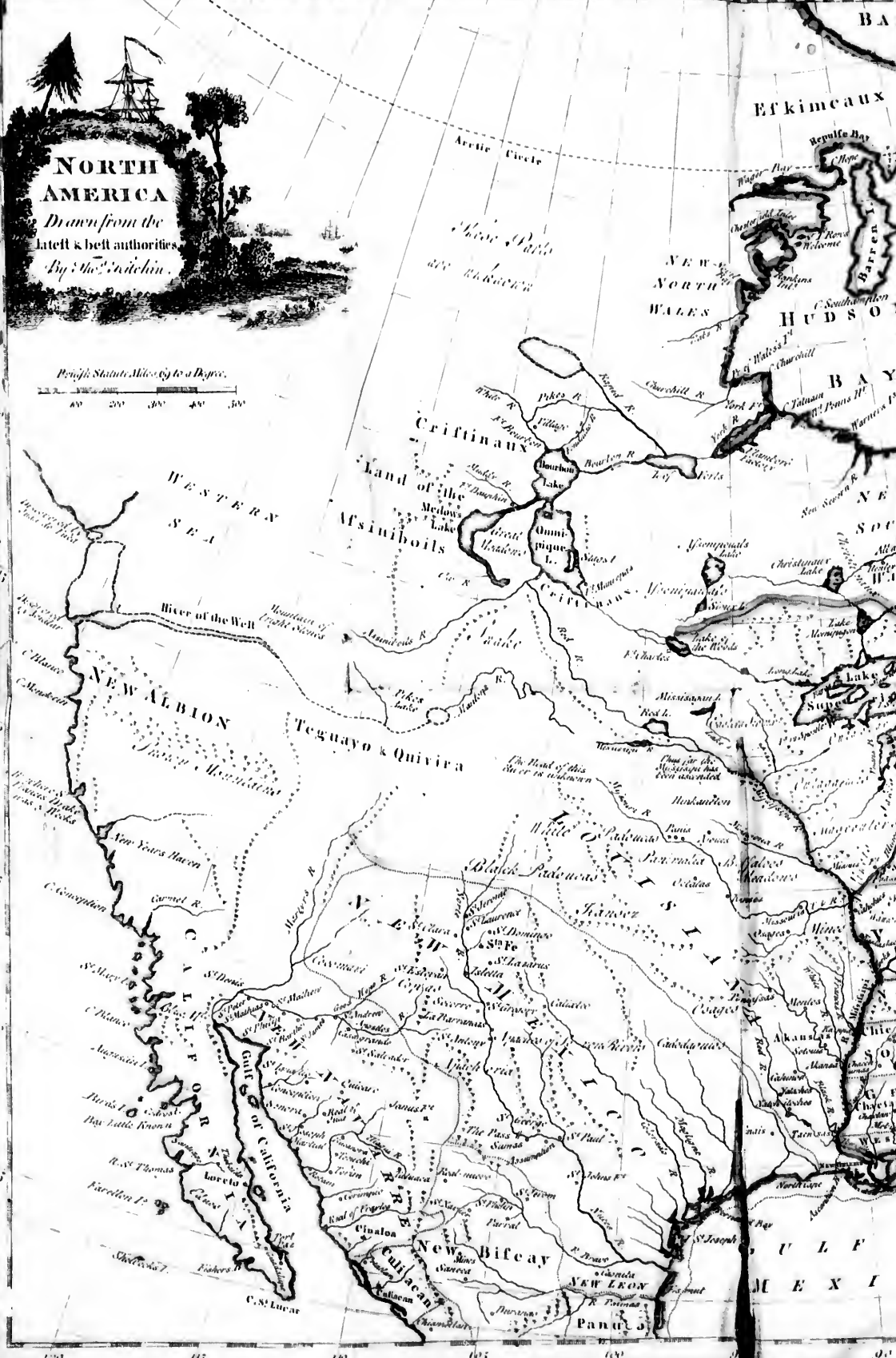
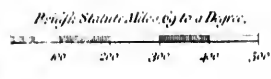
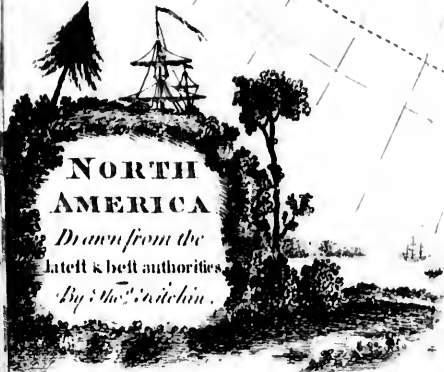
In describing the situation, extent, and boundaries of the numerous colonies which now compose this great empire, we have totally rejected the accounts given us by partial French writers,

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NEW SOUTH WILES

LAKE SUPERIOR

PENNSYLVANIA

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writers, as well as those of Salmon and other English geographers, if men deserve that name, who have wandered so widely from the truth, and who seem either unacquainted with the subject, or have been at no pains to consult the latest and most authentic materials. This we thought necessary to premise, that the reader may be prepared for the following table, which he will find to differ widely from any book of geography hitherto published, being composed from the latest treaties and the best maps and drawings in consequence of these treaties, and the surest guides in giving the geography of these important provinces.

The multitude of islands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided amongst the Spaniards, English, and French. The Dutch indeed possess three or four small islands, which in any other hands would be of no consequence: and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deserve to be named among the proprietors of America. We shall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the north; but as Labrador or New Britain, and the countries round Hudson's Bay, with those vast regions towards the pole, are little known, we can only include within the following table, the colonies that have been formed into regular governments, which bring us to the 50th degree north l. t. viz.

The grand Divisions of NORTH AMERICA.

| Colonies. | Length | Breadth. | Chief Towns. | Dist. & bearing from London. | Belongs to |
|---|-----------------|----------|--|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Province of Quebec } | 800 | 200 | Quebec | | Great Britain |
| New Scotland | 350 | 250 | Hallifax | | Ditto |
| New England | 550 | 200 | Boston | 2-60 W. | Ditto |
| New York | 300 | 150 | New York | | Ditto |
| New Jersey | 160 | 60 | Perth Amboy | | Ditto |
| Pennsylvania | 300 | 240 | Philadelphia | | Ditto |
| Maryland | 140 | 135 | Annapolis | | Ditto |
| Virginia | 750 | 240 | Williamsburg | | Ditto |
| No. Carolina } So. Carolina } Georgia } | 700 | 380 | Wilmington Charles-town Savannah | | Ditto Ditto Ditto |
| East Florida } West Florida } | 500 | 410 | St. Augustin Pensacola | | Ditto Ditto |
| Louisiana | Bounds undeter. | | New Orleans | 4080 S. W. | Spain |
| New Mexico } & California } | 2000 | 1600 | St. Fee St. Juan | 4320 S. W. | Ditto Ditto |
| Mexico or New Spain } | 2000 | 600 | Mexico | 4900 S. W. | Ditto |

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The principal ISLANDS in North America belonging to Europeans are,

| ISLANDS. | Length. | Breadt. | Chief Towns. | Belongs to | |
|--|---|-------------|------------------|-----------------------|----------------|
| In the Gulph of St. Lawr. | Newfoundland | 350 | 200 | Placentia | Great Britain |
| | Cape Breton | 110 | 80 | Louisburg | Ditto |
| | St. John's | 60 | 30 | Charlotte Town | Ditto |
| In the Atlantic. | The Bermudas illes | 2,000 acres | | St. George | Ditto |
| | The Bahama ditto | | | Nassau | Ditto |
| West-India Islands, lying in the Atlantic between North and South America. | Jamaica | 140 | 60 | Kingston | Ditto |
| | Barbadoes | 21 | 14 | Bridgetown | Ditto |
| | St. Christopher's | 20 | 7 | Basse-terre | Ditto |
| | Antigua | 20 | 20 | St. John's | Ditto |
| | Nevis and Montserrat | each of 18 | these is circum. | Charles-Town Plymouth | Ditto Ditto |
| | Barbuda | 20 | 12 | | Ditto |
| | Anguilla | 30 | 10 | | Ditto |
| | Dominica | 28 | 13 | | Ditto |
| | St. Vincent | 24 | 18 | | Ditto |
| | Granada | 30 | 15 | Leeds | Ditto |
| | Tobago | 32 | 9 | | Ditto |
| | Cuba | 700 | 70 | Havannah | Spain |
| | Hispaniola | 450 | 150 | St. Domingo | Ditto & France |
| | Porto Rico | 100 | 40 | Porto Rico | Spain |
| | Trinidad | 90 | 60 | | Ditto |
| | Margaritta | 40 | 24 | | Ditto |
| | Martinico | 60 | 30 | St. Peter's | France |
| | Guadalupe | 45 | 35 | Basse-terre | Ditto |
| | St. Lucia | 23 | 12 | | Ditto |
| | St. Bartholomew, Deleada, and Maragalante | very small | | | Ditto Ditto |
| St. Eustacia | 29 | circum. | The Bay | Dutch | |
| Caraffou | 30 | 10 | | Ditto | |
| St. Thomas | 15 | circum. | | Denmark | |
| St. Croix | 30 | 10 | Basse-terre | Ditto | |

Grand Divisions of SOUTH AMERICA.

| Nations. | Length | Breadt. | Chief Cities. | Dist. & bearing from London. | Belongs to |
|---|--|---------|--------------------|------------------------------|-----------------|
| Terra Firma | 1400 | 700 | Panama | 1650 S. W. | Spain |
| Peru | 1800 | 500 | Lima | 5320 S. W. | Spain |
| Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 960 B. | | | | | |
| Guiana | 780 | 480 | Surinam or Cayenne | 3840 S. W. | Dutch & French |
| Brasil | 2500 | 700 | St. Salvador | 6000 S. W. | Portugal |
| Paraguay or Laplata | 1500 | 1000 | Buenos Ayres | 6040 S. W. | Spain & Jesuits |
| Chili | 1200 | 500 | St. Jago | 6600 S. W. | Spain |
| Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia. | The Spaniards took possession of it, but did not think it worth while to settle there. 700 L. 300 B. | | | | |

BRITISH AMERICA.

NEW BRITAIN.

NEW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudson's bay, and commonly called the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, now North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands, and frozen seas, about the pole, on the north; by the Atlantic ocean on the east; by the bay and river of St. Lawrence and Canada, on the south; and by unknown lands on the west.

MOUNTAINS.] The tremendous high mountains in this country towards the north, their being covered with eternal snow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occasions a degree of cold in the winter, over all this country, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the same latitude.

RIVERS, BAYS, STRAITS, } AND CAPES. These are numerous in this country, and take their names generally from the English navigators and commanders, by whom they were first discovered; the principal bay is that of Hudson, and the principal straits are those of Hudson, Davies, and Belleisle.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This country is extremely barren; to the northward of Hudson's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is seen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth is incapable of any better production than some miserable shrubs. Every kind of European seed, which we have committed to the earth, in this inhospitable climate, has hitherto perished; but, in all probability, we have not tried the seed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway; in such cases, the place from whence the seed comes is of great moment. All this severity, and long continuance of winter, and the barrenness of the earth which comes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-one; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

ANIMALS.] These are the moose deer, stags, rein deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermins, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, they have geese, bustards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fish, there are whales, morses, seals, cod-fish, and a white fish, preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and fresh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at Port Nelson, in one season, ninety thousand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five thousand hares.

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All the animals of these countries, are cloathed with a close, soft, warm fur. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the several animals; when that season is over, which holds only for three months, they all assume the livery of winter, and every sort of beasts, and most of their fowls, are of the colour of the snow; every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a surprizing phenomenon. But what is yet more surprizing, and what is indeed one of the most striking things, that draw the most inattentive to an admiration of the wisdom and goodness of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried into Hudson's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, softer, and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.

Before we advance further in the description of America, it may be proper to observe in general, that all the quadrupes of this new world, are less than those of the old; even such as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never seen to improve. If with respect to size, we should compare the animals of the new and the old world, we shall find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Asiatic elephant, for instance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurette, which is the largest native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which some also call the American camel, is still less. Their beasts of prey are quite divested of that courage, which is so often fatal to man in Africa or Asia. They have no lions, nor, properly speaking, either leopard or tiger. Travellers, however, have affixed those names to such ravenous animals, as are there found most to resemble those of the ancient continent. The congar, the taquar, and the taquarretti among them, are despicable in comparison of the tiger, the leopard, and the panther of Asia. The tyger of Bengal has been known to measure six feet in length, without including the tail, while the congar, or American tyger, as some affect to call it, seldom exceeds three. All the animals therefore in the southern parts of America, are different from those in the southern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but those, which being able to bear the colds of the north, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rein-deer, the stag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain and Canada, as Russia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tyger, which are natives of the south with us, are utterly unknown in southern America.

But

But if the quadrupedes of America be smaller than those of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wisdom of the author of it, that the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. The goat, imported from Europe to southern America, in a few generations becomes much less, but then it also becomes more prolific, and instead of one kid at a time, or two at the most, generally produces five, six, and sometimes more. The wisdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious; had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the same degree of fecundity with the rabbit, or the rat, all the arts of man would soon be unequal to the contest, and we should soon perceive them become the tyrants of those who call themselves the masters of the creation.

PERSONS AND HABITS.] The men of this country shew great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in cloathing themselves, and in preserving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every where surrounds them, for the greatest part of the year; in other respects they are very savage. In their shapes and faces they do not resemble the Americans who live to the southward; they are much more like the Laplanders and Samooids of Europe already described, from whom they are probably descended. The other Americans seem to be of a Tartar original.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of these northern seas and countries, was owing to a project started in England for the discovery of a north-west passage to China, and the East Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet completed. Forbisher only discovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John David sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coasts, but he seems never to have entered the bay. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure, the first in 1607, the second in 1608, and his third and last in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the straits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the discovery not being abated by the difficulties he struggled with in this empire of winter, and world of frost and snow, he staid here until the ensuing spring, and prepared in the beginning of 1611 to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships, without the same spirit to support them, mutinied,

seized upon him, and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy seas, in an open boat. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhospitable coast, were destroyed by the savages; but the ship, and the rest of the men returned home.

The last attempt towards a discovery was made in 1746 by captain Ellis, who wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half; but though the adventurers failed in the original purpose, for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to this country. The vast countries which surround Hudson's Bay, as we have already observed, abound with animals, whose fur and skins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not consist of above nine or ten persons, for the exclusive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever since with great benefit to the private men, who compose the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this exclusive company, whose interest, not to say iniquitous spirit has been the subject of long and just complaint. The company employ four ships, and 130 seamen. They have four forts, viz. Churchill, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay, and are garrisoned by 186 men. They export commodities to the value of 16,000 l. and bring home returns to the value of 29,340 l. which yield to the revenue 3,734 l. This includes the fishery in Hudson's Bay. This commerce, small as it is, affords immense profits to the company, and even some advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their skins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, such things are sent, of which we have the greatest plenty, and which in the mercantile phrase, are drugs with us. Though the workmanship too happen to be in many respects so deficient, that no civilized people would take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the skins and furs we bring from Hudson's Bay, enter largely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage. These circumstances tend to prove incontestibly the immense benefit, that would redound to Great Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudson's Bay, since even in its present restrained state it is so advantageous. This company, it is probable, do not find their trade so advantageous now,

as it was before we got possession of Canada. The only attempt made to trade with Labrador, has been directed towards the fishery. Great Britain has no settlement here, though the annual produce of the fishery, amounting to upward of 49,000 l. and the natural advantages of the country should encourage us to set about this design.

CANADA, or the PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

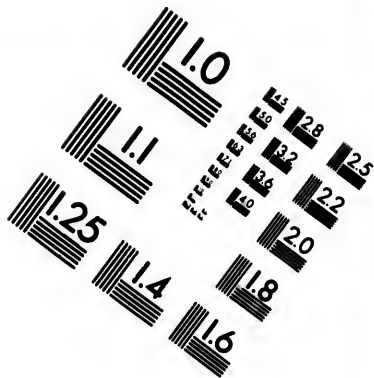
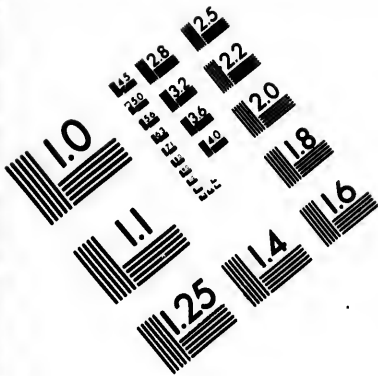
| | | | |
|---------|--------|-----------|-----------------------------|
| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
| Length | 800 | } between | { 61 and 81 west longitude. |
| Breadth | 200 | | { 45 and 52 north latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] THE French comprehended under the name of Canada, a very large territory, taking into their claim part of New Scotland, New England, and New York, on the east; and, to the west, extending it as far as the Pacific Ocean. That part, however, which they have been able to cultivate, and which bore the face of a colony, lay chiefly upon the banks of the river St. Lawrence, and the numerous small rivers falling into that stream. This being reduced by the British arms in the late war, is now formed into a British colony, called the Province of Quebec. See the Royal Proclamation.

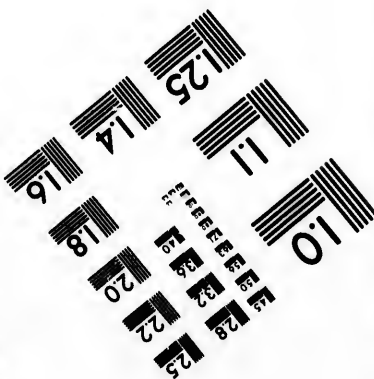
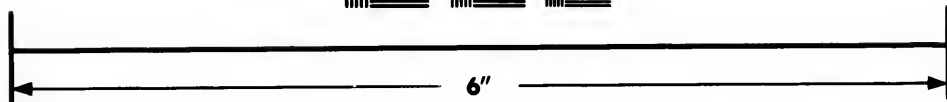
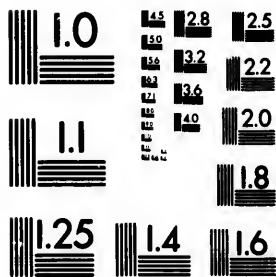
AIR AND CLIMATE.] The climate of this extensive province is not very different from the colonies mentioned above, but as it is much further from the sea, and more northerly than a great part of these provinces, it has a much severer winter, though the air is generally clear; but like most of those American tracts, that do not lie too far to the northward, the summers are very hot and exceeding pleasant.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the soil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleasant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other sorts of grains, fruits and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated. The isle of Orleans near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Lawrence, and other rivers are remarkable for the richness of their soil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of British America, and as Canada, stretching a considerable way upon the back of our other settlements, contains almost all the different species of wood





**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



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wood, and animals, that are found in these colonies, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them here at some length.

TIMBER AND PLANTS.] The uncultivated parts of North America, contain the greatest forests in the world. They are a continued wood not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itself. Nothing is more magnificent to the sight; the trees lose themselves in the clouds; and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that even among those persons who have taken most pains to know them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are describing, produces amongst others, two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three sorts of ash-trees, the free, the mungrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech-trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which, made out of one piece, will contain 20 persons, others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they sew together with the inner rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter resembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitation in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are also found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infused in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called Alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow several tufts of flowers, which, when shaken in the morning, before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into sugar, the seed being a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the sun-plant, which resembles a marigold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire; and the hop-plant.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in some of the mountains, we are told, silver has been found, though we have not heard any great advantage made of it as yet. This country also abounds with coals.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold and deep. The principal are, the Outtauais, St. John's, Seguinay, Desprairies, and Trois Rivieres, but they are all swallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river issues from the lake Ontario, and taking its course north-east, washes Montreal, where it

receives

receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile islands. It continues the same course, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, where it is navigable for large vessels, and below Quebec, 320 miles from the sea, it becomes broad, and so deep that ships of the line contributed, in the last war, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progress innumerable streams, this great river falls into the ocean at cape Rosieres, where it is 90 miles broad, and where the cold is intense, and the sea boisterous. In its progress it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and islands, many of them fruitful, and extremely pleasant.

LAKES.] The great river St. Laurence, is that only upon which the French (now subjects of Great-Britain) have settlements of any note; but if we look forward into futurity, it is nothing improbable that Canada, and those vast regions to the west, will be enabled of themselves to carry on a considerable trade upon the great lakes of fresh water, which these countries environ. Here are five lakes, the smallest of which is a piece of sweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not less than 200 leagues in circumference; Erie, or Oswego, longer, but not so broad, is about the same extent. That of the Huron spreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not less than 300, as is that of Michigan, though like lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains several large islands, is 500 leagues in the circuit. All of these are navigable by any vessels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the passage between Erie and Ontario, is interrupted by a stupendous fall or cataract, which is called the falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock crosses it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 150 feet, no words can express the consternation of travellers at seeing so great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from so great an height, upon the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing white as snow, being all converted into foam, through those violent agitations. The noise of this fall is often heard at the distance of 15 miles, and sometimes much farther. The vapour arising from the fall may sometimes be seen at a great distance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of smoke, and in the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the sun, and the position of the traveller, favours. Many beasts and fowls here lose their lives, by attempting to swim, or cross the stream in the rapids above the fall, and are found dashed in pieces below, and sometimes the Indians, through

through carelessness or drunkenness, have met with the same fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by such a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Laurence, as we have already observed, is the outlet of these lakes; by this they discharge themselves into the ocean. The French have built forts at the several straits, by which these lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the last of them communicates with the river. By these they effectually secured to themselves the trade of the lakes, and an influence upon all the nations of America which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] These make the most curious, and hitherto the most interesting part of the natural history of Canada. It is to the spoils of these that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and most of the commerce as yet carried on between us and the country we have been describing. The animals that find shelter and nourishment in the immense forests of Canada, and which indeed traverse the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martens, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, squirrels of a large size and greyish hue, hares, and rabbits. The southern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a small size, divers sorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, swarm with otters, beavers or castors, of which the white are highly valued, being scarce, as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though resembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the most curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs sixty or seventy pounds; they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The savages, who waged a continual war with this animal, believed it to be a rational creature, that it lived in society, and was governed by a leader, resembling their own sachein or prince. It must indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to serve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and severity of it, are sufficient to shew the near approaches of instinct to reason, and even in some instances the superiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and straw-colour; but it is observed, that the lighter their colour, the less quantity of
fur

fur they are cloathed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the skin before it is applied to any use; the green are the furs that are worn, after being sewed to one another, by the Indians, who besinear them with unctuous substances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down that is manufactured into hats, that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and English have of late found the secret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and stockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Besides the fur, this useful animal produces the true castoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the testicles: the value of this drug is well known. The flesh of the beaver is a most delicious food, but when boiled it has a disagreeable relish.

The musk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver, (weighing about five or six pounds) which it resembles in every thing but its tail; and it affords a very strong musk.

The elk is of the size of a horse or mule. Many extraordinary medicinal qualities, particularly for curing the falling-sickness, are ascribed to the hoof of the left foot of this animal. Its flesh is very agreeable and nourishing, and its colour a mixture of light-grey and dark-red. They love the cold countries; and when the winter affords them no grass, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he sometimes springs furiously on his pursuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him, and while the deluded animal spends his fury on these, he takes proper measures to dispatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail so long, that Charlevoix says he twisted it several times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the snout to the tail. It is said, that this animal, winding himself about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twist his strong tail round his body, and cut his throat in a moment.

The buffaloe, a kind of wild ox, has much the same appearance with those of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly esteemed. The flesh of the female is very good; and the buffaloe hides are as soft and pliable as chamoes leather, but so very strong, that the bucklers which the Indians make use of are hardly penetrable by a musket ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domestic animal, but differs in no other respect from those of Europe. Wolves are scarce in Canada, but they afford the finest furs in all the country:

their flesh is white, and good to eat; and they pursue their prey to the tops of the tallest trees. The black foxes are greatly esteemed, and very scarce; but those of other colours are more common: and some on the Upper Mississippi are of a silver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water-fowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thousand antic tricks, and then spring upon, and devour them. The Canadian poll-cat has a most beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the smell of which is nauseous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it sprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the assailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful silver colour with a bushy tail, and twice as big as the European: the female carries under her belly a bag, which she opens and shuts at pleasure; and in that she places her young when pursued. Here are three sorts of squirrels; that called the flying-squirrel will leap forty paces and more, from one tree to another. This little animal is easily tamed, and is very lively, except when asleep, which is often the case; and he puts up wherever he can find a place, in one's sleeve, pocket, or muff; he first pitches on his master, whom he will distinguish among 20 persons. The Canadian porcupine is less than a middling dog; when roasted, he eats full as well as a sucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from those in Europe, only they turn grey in winter. There are two sorts of bears here, one of a reddish, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the most dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unless when wounded, or oppressed with hunger. They run themselves very poor in the month of July, when it is somewhat dangerous to meet them, and they are said to support themselves during the winter, when the snow lies from four to six feet deep, by sucking their paws. Scarce any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater solemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one day, is more eagerly sought after than that of one who has rendered himself famous in war. The reason is, because the chase supplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goshawks, tercols, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they spread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance; woodcocks are scarce in Canada, but snipes, and other water-game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is said by some writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, swallows, and larks; no
less

less than twenty-two different species of ducks, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but always at a distance from houses. The Canadian woodpecker is a beautiful bird. Thrushes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very shewy, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring. The fly-bird is thought to be the most beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chaffer, and he makes a noise with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-snake only deserves attention. Some of these are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is most remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is scaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is said there grows every year one ring, or row of scales; so that they know its age by its tail, as we do that of a horse by his teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noise, from which it has its name. The bite of this serpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant which is called rattle-snake herb, the root of which (such is the goodness of Providence) is a certain antidote against the venom of this serpent, and that with the most simple preparation, for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaister to the wound. The rattle-snake seldom bites passengers, unless it is provoked, and never darts itself at any person without first rattling three times with its tail. When pursued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itself round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itself with great fury and violence against its pursuers: nevertheless, the savages chase it, and find its flesh very good, and being also of medicinal quality it is used by the American apothecaries in particular cases.

Some writers are of opinion that the fisheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Lawrence contains perhaps the greatest variety of any in the world, and these in the greatest plenty and of the best sorts.

Besides a great variety of other fish in the rivers and lakes, are sea-wolves, sea-cows, porpoises, the lencornet, the goberque, the sea-plaife, salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, the chaourasou, sturgeon, the achigau, the gilthead, tunny, shad, lamprey, smelts, conger-eels, mackarel, soals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The sea-wolf, so called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largest are said to weigh

weigh two thousand pounds; their flesh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning, and currying of leather; their skins make excellent coverings for trunks, and though not so fine as Morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less liable to cracks. The shoes and boots made of those skins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and lasting covers for seats. The Canadian sea-cow is larger than the sea-wolf, but resembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickness and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoises of the river St. Lawrence are said to yield a hoghead of oil; and of their skins waistcoats are made, which are excessive strong, and musket proof. The leucronet is a kind of kuttle-fish, quite round, or rather oval: there are three sorts of them, which differ only in size; some being as large as a hoghead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the last, and that with a torch: they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taste and smell of a small cod. The sea-plaife is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaourafou is an armed fish, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, resembling a pike; but is covered with scales that are proof against a dagger: its colour is a silver grey; and there grows under his mouth a long bony substance, ragged at the edges. One may readily conceive, that an animal so well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have few instances of fish making prey of the feathered creation, which this fish does, however, with much art. He conceals himself among the canes and reeds, in such a manner that nothing is to be seen besides his weapon, which he holds raised perpendicularly, above the surface of the water: the fowls, which come to take rest, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it, but they are no sooner alighted, than the fish opens his throat, and makes such a sudden motion to seize his prey, that it seldom escapes him. This fish is an inhabitant of the lakes. The sturgeon is both a fresh and salt-water fish, taken on the coasts of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a small kind of sturgeon, the flesh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fish peculiar to the river St. Lawrence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from those of the Nile.

[INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the late war, the banks of the river St. Lawrence, above Quebec, were vastly populous, but we cannot precisely determine the number

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number of French and English settled in this province, who are undoubtedly upon the increase. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almost innumerable; but these people are observed to decrease in population where the Europeans are most numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate use of spirituous liquors, of which they are excessively fond. But as liberty is the ruling passion of the Indians, we may naturally suppose that as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more distant regions.

Quebec, the capital, not only of this province, but of all Canada, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, or the little river, about 320 miles from the sea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble and partly of slate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houses in both are of stone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are strong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor resides. The number of inhabitants are computed at 12 or 15,000. The river, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a sudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies opposite the town, is safe and commodious, and about five fathom deep. The harbour is flanked by two bastions, that are raised 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in sailing up the river St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way; several gentlemens houses, neatly built, shew themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well settled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themselves. Many beautiful islands are interspersed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After passing the Richlieu islands, the air becomes so mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himself transported to another climate; but this is to be understood in the summer months.

The town called Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the St. Lawrence. It is much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who by means of these rivers, resort hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs

and skins. The country here is pleasant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handsome houses stand on both sides the rivers.

Montreal stands on an island in the river St. Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the south shore. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island was become a most delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well formed streets; and when it fell into the hands of the English, the houses were built in a very handsome manner, and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the southernmost side of the river, as the hill on the side of which the town stands, falls gradually to the water. This place is surrounded by a wall and a dry ditch, and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but since it fell into the hands of the English it hath suffered much by fires.

GOVERNMENT.] Before the late war, the French lived in affluence, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fish, fell timber, and to sow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. By the capitulation granted to the French, when this country was reduced, both individuals and communities are entitled to all their former rights and privileges. The Roman-catholic is still to continue their established religion; but the king of Great-Britain succeeds to all the power and prerogatives of which the French king was possessed. Canada is now divided into three governments, viz. Quebec, Montreal, and Trois Rivieres.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] By expelling the French from the back of our settlements, we secured them from the danger of being molested or attacked by an active and formidable enemy, and enabled our people to attend, with proper spirit and industry, to agriculture, and the improvement of that country. While the important conquest of Canada removed a rival power from that part of North America, it put us in the sole possession of the fur and peltry trade, the use and importance of which is well known to the manufacturers of Great-Britain, and enables us to extend the scale of a general commerce.

The nature of the climate, severely cold in winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, shews what Canada principally wants from Europe; wine, or rather rum, cloths, chiefly coarse,

coarse, linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a sort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was possessed by the French, the Indians supplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traversed the vast lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible industry and patience, carrying their goods into the remotest parts of America, and amongst nations entirely unknown to us. These again brought the market home to them, as the Indians were thereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpose, people from all parts, even from the distance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and sometimes lasted three months. On this occasion, many solemnities were observed, guards were placed, and the governor assisted, to preserve order, in such a concourse, and so great a variety of savage nations. But sometimes great disorder and tumults happened; and the Indians, being so fond of brandy, frequently gave for a dram all they were possessed of. It is remarkable, that many of these nations, actually passed by our settlement of Albany in New York, and travelled 200 miles further to Montreal, though they might have purchased the goods cheaper at the former. So much did the French exceed us in the arts of winning the affections of these savages!

Since we became possessed of Canada, our trade with that country employs 34 ships, and 400 seamen. Their exports, at an average of three years, in skins, furs, ginseng, snake-root, cappillaire and wheat, amount to 105,500*l*. Their imports from Great-Britain, in a variety of articles, are computed at nearly the same sum. It is unnecessary to make any remarks on the value and importance of this trade, which not only supplies us with unmanufactured materials, indispensibly necessary in many articles of our commerce, but also takes in exchange, the manufactures of our own country, or the production of our other settlements in the East and West Indies.

But with all our attention to the trade and peopling of Canada, it will be impossible to overcome certain inconveniences, proceeding from natural causes; I mean the severity of the winter, which is so excessive from December to April, that the greatest rivers are frozen over, and the snow lies commonly from four to six feet deep on the ground, even in those parts of the country, which lie three degrees south of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience arises from the falls in the river St. Lawrence, below Montreal, which prevents sea vessels from penetrating to that emporium of inland commerce. Our communication therefore

with Canada, and the immense regions beyond it, will always be interrupted during the winter-season, until roads are formed, that can be travelled with safety from the Indians. For it may here be observed, that these savage people often commence hostilities against us, without any previous notice; and frequently, without any provocation, they commit the most horrid ravages for a long time with impunity. But when at last their barbarities have roused the strength of our people, they are not ashamed to beg a peace; they know we always grant it readily; they promise it shall endure as long as the sun and moon; and then all is quiet till some incident, too often co-operating with ill usage received from our traders, gives them a fresh opportunity of renewing their cruelties.

HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

NEW SCOTLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---------|--------|-----------|--|
| Length | 350 | } between | { 43 and 49 north latitude. 60 and 67 west longitude. |
| Breadth | 250 | | |

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the river St. Lawrence on the north; by the gulph of St. Lawrence, and the Atlantic ocean, east; by the same ocean, south; and by Canada and New-England, west.

RIVERS.] The river of St. Lawrence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Kitgouche and Nipisiguit run from west to east, and fall into the bay of St. Lawrence. The rivers of St. John, Passaragnadi, Penobscot, and St. Croix, which run from north to south, fall into Fundy bay, or the sea a little to the eastward of it.

SEAS, BAYS AND CAPES.] The seas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic ocean, Fundy bay, and the gulph of St. Lawrence. The lesser bays are, Chenigto and Green bay upon the Isthmus, which lies the north part of Nova Scotia to the south; and the bay of Chaleurs on the north-east; the bay of Chedibucto on the south-east: the bay of the islands, the ports of Bart, Chebucto, Prosper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Maltois, port Rysignol, port Vert and port Joly, on the south; port La Tour, on the south-east; port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas on the south side of Fundy bay.

The chief capes are, cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, cape Port and Epis, on the east. Cape Fogeri, and cape Canceau, on the south-east. Cape Blanco, cape Vert, cape

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cape Theodore, cape Dore, cape La Heve, and cape Negro, on the south. Cape Sable, and cape Fourche, on the south-west.

LAKES.] The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the Temperate Zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European constitutions. They are wrapt up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year, and for four or five months it is intensely cold. But though the cold in winter and the heat in summer are great, they come on gradually, so as to prepare the body for enduring both.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] From such an unfavourable climate little can be expected. New Scotland is almost a continued forest; and agriculture, tho' attempted by the English settlers, has hitherto made little progress. In most parts, the soil is thin and barren, the corn it produces of a shrivelled kind like rye, and the grass intermixed with a cold spongy moss. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninsula to the southward, which do not yield to the best land in New England; and, in general, the soil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ship-building, and produces pitch and tar.

ANIMALS.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beaver and otters. Wild fowl, and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupedes have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the close of March, the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in such shoals, as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the sturgeon and salmon in May. But the most valuable appendage of New Scotland, is the cape Sable coast, along which is one continued range of cod-fishing banks, and excellent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF } Notwithstanding the
 TOWNS AND COMMERCE. } forbidding appearance
 of this country, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made. The first grant of lands in it were given by James I. to his secretary Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English nation backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the English, till the peace of Utrecht, and their design in acquiring it, does not seem to have so much arisen from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehension that the French, by possessing

this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other settlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were transported in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country. The town they erected is called Halifax, from the earl of that name, to whose wisdom and care we owe this settlement. The town of Halifax stands upon Chebucto bay, very commodiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with most parts of the province, either by land carriage, the sea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war lies during the winter, and in summer puts to sea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fishery, and to see that the articles of the late peace, relating thereto, are duly observed by the French. The town has an intrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber. Three regiments of men are stationed in it, to protect the inhabitants from the Indians, whose resentment, however excited or fomented, has been found implacable against the English. The number of inhabitants is said to be 15 or 16,000, who live very comfortably by the trade they carry on in furs and naval stores, by their fisheries, and its being the residence of the governor, and the garrison already mentioned. The other towns of less note are Anapolis, which stands on the east side of the bay of Fundy, and though but a small wretched place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the finest harbours in America, capable of containing a thousand vessels at anchor, in the utmost security. This place is also protected by a fort and garrison. St John's is a new settlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the bay of Fundy on the west side.

The exports from Great Britain to this country, consist chiefly of woollen and linen cloth, and other necessaries for wear, of fishing tackle, and rigging for ships. The amount of our exports, at an average of three years, is about 26,500 l. The only articles we can get in exchange, are timber, and the produce of the fishery, which, at a like average, amounts to 38,000 l. But, as we have already observed, the negative advantage of this colony, by which our enemies, while it remains in our hands, are prevented from doing harm to our other settlements, have principally engaged the British ministry to expend such sums, and to take such pains in supporting it.

NEW ENGLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | Degrees. |
|------------------------|---------------------------|
| Length 550 } between { | 41 and 49 north latitude. |
| Breadth 200 } | 67 and 74 west longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED on the north-east by New-Scotland; on the west, by Canada; on the south by New York; and on the east by the Atlantic.

| Divisions. | Provinces. | Chief towns. |
|--|---------------------------|---|
| The north division, { or government | { New Hampshire — } | { Portsmouth. |
| The middle division { | { Massachusets's Colony } | { BOSTON, N. Lat. 42-20. W. Lon. 71. |
| The south division | Rhode Island, &c. | Newport. |
| The west division { | { Connecticut ——— } | { New London. Hertford. |

RIVERS.] Their rivers are, 1. Connecticut; 2. Thames; 3. Patuxent; 4. Merimac; 5. Piscataway; 6. Saco; 7. Casco; 8. Kinnebeck; and, 9. Penobscot, or Pentagonet.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The most remarkable bays and harbours are those formed by Plymouth, Rhode-Island, and Providence plantations; Monument-Bay; West-Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape-Cod; Boston-Harbour; Piscataway, and Casco-Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape-Cod, Marble-Head, Cape-Anne, Cape-Netic, Cape-Porpus, Cape-Elizabeth, and Cape-Small-Point.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] New England, though situated almost ten degrees nearer the sun than the mother country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more severe than with us. The summer again is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the same latitude. The clear and serene temperature of the sky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country so healthy, that it is reported to agree better with British constitutions, than any other of the American provinces. The winds are very boisterous in the winter season, and naturalists ascribe the early approach, the length and severity of the winter, to the large fresh water lakes lying to the north-west of New England, which being froze over several months, occasion those piercing winds, which prove so fatal to mariners on this coast.

The sun rises at Boston, on the longest day, at 26 minutes after four in the morning, and sets at 34 minutes after seven in the evening; and on their shortest day, it rises at 35 minutes after seven in the morning, and sets at 27 minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longest day is about fifteen hours; and the shortest about nine.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] We have already observed, that the lands lying on the eastern shore of America, are low, and in some parts swampy, but further back they rise into hills. In New England, towards the north-east, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The soil here is various, but best as you approach the southward. Round Massachusetts's bay the soil is black, and rich as in any part of England; and here the first planters found the grass above a yard high. The uplands are less fruitful, being for the most part a mixture of sand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadows and pasture land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much success; the wheat is subject to be blasted; the barley is an hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn flourishes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower sort of people. They likewise malt and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the common table drink is cyder and spruce beer: the latter is made of the tops of the spruce fir, with the addition of a small quantity of molasses. They likewise raise in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a single apple-tree has produced seven barrels of cyder in one season.

But New England is chiefly distinguished for the variety and value of its timber, as oak, ash, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypress, beech, walnut, chestnut, hazel, sassafras, samach, and other woods used in dying or tanning leather, carpenters work, and ship building. The oaks here are said to be inferior to those of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and furnish the royal navy of England with masts and yards. They draw from their trees considerable quantities of pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the soil produces hemp and flax. A ship may here be built and rigged out with the produce of their forest, and indeed ship-building forms a considerable branch of their trade.

METALS.] Rich iron mines, of a most excellent kind and temper, have been discovered in New England, and, if improved, in a short time they may supply Great Britain, without having recourse to Sweden, and other European nations

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for that commodity; especially as the parliament, to encourage the undertaking, allows both pig and bar iron to be imported duty free.

ANIMALS.] The animals of this country furnish many articles of New England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horses of New England are hardy, mettlesome, and serviceable, but smaller than ours, though larger than the Welsh. They have few sheep; and the wool, though of a staple sufficiently long, is not near so fine as that of England. Here are also elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, beavers, otters, monkeys, minks, martens, racoons, sabbes, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupedes, some of which are imported into Great Britain as foreign curiosities. But one of the most singular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the mose or moose deer, of which there are two sorts; the common light grey moose, which resembles the ordinary deer; these herd sometimes thirty together; and the large black moose, whose body is about the size of a bull; his neck resembles a stag's, and his flesh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have shoots or branches to each horn, which generally spread about six feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way; and these prodigious horns are shed every year. This animal does not spring or rise in going, like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been seen to step over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a course of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to a bay; but when chased, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, as turkeys, geese, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, swans, heathcocks, herons, storks, blackbirds, all sorts of barn-door fowl, vast flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain seasons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are, rattle-snakes, frogs, and toads, which swarm in the uncleared parts of these countries, where, with the owls, they make a most hideous noise in the summer evenings.

The seas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fish, and even whales of several kinds, such as the whale-bone whale, the spermaceti-whale, which yields ambergris, the fin-backed whale, the scrag whale, and the bunch whale, of which they take great numbers, and send besides some ships every year to fish for whales in Greenland. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from 20 to 30 feet long,

long, with strong teeth and jaws, persecutes the whale in these seas; but, afraid of his monstrous strength, they seldom attack a full grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobscot, there is a mackarel fishery; they likewise fish for cod in winter, which they dry in the frost.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND } There is not one
FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } of our settlements
which can be compared, in the abundance of people, the number of considerable and trading towns, and the manufactures that are carried on in them, to New-England. The most populous and flourishing parts of the mother country, hardly make a better appearance, than the cultivated parts of this province, which reach about 60 miles back. There are here many gentlemen of considerable landed estates, but the greatest part of the people is composed of a substantial yeomanry, who cultivate their own freeholds, without a dependance upon any but Providence, and their own industry. These freeholds generally pass to their children in the way of gavelkind: which keeps them from being almost ever able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the ordinary sort so independant, or possess more of the conveniences of life; they are used from their infancy, to the exercise of arms; and they have a militia, which for a militia is by no means contemptible. The population of the four provinces, of which New-England is comprized, is proportioned by Douglass, who seems to be well informed in this point, as follows,

| | | |
|-------------------|------|---------|
| Maffachufet's bay | ———— | 200,000 |
| Connecticut | ———— | 100,000 |
| Rhode ifland | ———— | 30,000 |
| New Hampshire | ———— | 24,000 |

But the number since his time is so greatly increased, that according to the latest calculation, the four provinces contain 600,000 souls, including a small number of Negroes and Indians.

RELIGION.] The church of England, in this part of America, is far from being in a flourishing condition; in several places, the number of auditors do not amount to twelve persons. In the year 1768, the four provinces contained upwards of 700 religious assemblies; of which 36 only observed the forms of the church of England. Every particular society among them, is independant of all other ecclesiastical jurisdiction; nor does there lie any appeal from their punishments or censures. The ministers of Boston depend entirely on the
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generosity of their hearers for support; a voluntary contribu-
tion being made for them, by the congregation, every time
divine service is celebrated. It is not long since they suffered
any member of the church of England to have a share in the
magistracy, or to be elected a member of the Commons, or
House of Representatives. Their laws against quakers seem
to have been very severe. To bring one in was a forfeiture of
100l. to conceal one 40 s. an hour; to go to a quaker's meet-
ing 10 s. to preach there 5 s. If a quaker was not an inha-
bitant, he was subject to banishment, and if he returned,
death; but these and some other ecclesiastical laws equally
absurd, are now either repealed, or greatly mitigated.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Boston, the capital of New-England,
and of all the British empire in America, stands on a peninsula
at the bottom of Massachusetts bay, about nine miles from its
mouth. At the entrance of this bay are several rocks, which
appear above water, and upwards of a dozen small islands,
some of which are inhabited. There is but one safe channel
to approach the harbour, and that so narrow, that two ships
can scarcely sail through abreast, but within the harbour there
is room for 500 sail to lie at anchor, in a good depth of water.
On one of the islands of the bay, stands Fort William, the
most regular fortress in the British plantations. This castle
is defended by 100 guns, twenty of which lie on a platform
level with the water, so that it is scarce possible for an enemy
to pass the castle. To prevent surprize, they have a guard
placed on one of the rocks, at two leagues distance, from
whence they make signals to the castle, when any ships come
near it. There is also a battery of guns at each end of the
town. At the bottom of the bay is a noble pier, near 2000
feet in length; along which, on the north side, extends a row
of warehouses for the merchants, and to this pier ships of the
greatest burthen may come and unload, without the help of
boats. The greatest part of the town lies round the harbour,
in the shape of a half moon; the country beyond it rising
gradually, and affording a delightful prospect from the sea.
The head of the pier joins the principal street of the town,
which is, like most of the others, spacious and well built.
Boston contains at present about 18,000 inhabitants; 50 years
ago they were more numerous. The surprising increase of
Newbury port, Salem, Marblehead, Cape Ann, Plymouth,
Dartmouth, and the island of Nantucket, hath checked the
growth and trade of the capital. The trade of Boston is,
however, so very considerable, that in the year 1768, 1200
sail entered or cleared at the Custom-house there.

Cambridge,

Cambridge, in the same province, four miles from Boston, has an university, containing two spacious colleges, called by the names of Harvard college, and Stoughton Hall, with a well furnished library. It consists of a president, five fellows, a treasurer, three professors, four tutors, and a librarian. The college charter was first granted in 1650, and renewed in 1692, and is held under the colony seal.

The other towns in New-England, the chief of which have already been mentioned, are generally neat, well built, and commodiously situated upon fine rivers, with capacious harbours.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The trade of New-England is great, as it supplies a large quantity of goods from within itself; but it is yet greater, as the people of this country are in a manner the carriers for all the colonies of North America, and the West Indies, and even for some parts of Europe. The commodities which the country yields, are principally, pig and bar iron, which is imported to Great Britain duty-free; also masts and yards, pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they contract largely with the royal navy; pot and pearl ashes, staves, lumber, boards; all sorts of provisions, which they send to the French and Dutch sugar islands, and to Barbadoes, and the other British isles, as grain, biscuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheese, apples, cyder, onions, mackarel, and cod fish dried. They likewise send thither cattle, horses, planks, hoops, shingles, pipe staves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf skins and tobacco. Their peltry trade is not very considerable. They have a most valuable fishery upon their coasts, in mackarel and cod, which employs vast numbers of their people, with the produce of which they trade to Spain, Italy, the Mediterranean, and West-Indies, to a considerable amount. Their whale fishery has been already mentioned. The arts most necessary to subsistence are those, which the inhabitants of New-England have been at pains to cultivate. They manufacture coarse linen and woollen cloth for their own use; hats are made here, which in a clandestine way, find a good vent in all the other colonies. Sugar baking, distilling, paper making, and salt works, are upon the improving hand. The business of ship-building is one of the most considerable, which Boston, or the other sea port towns in New-England carry on. Ships are sometimes built here upon commission; but frequently, the merchants of New-England have them constructed upon their own account; and loading them with the produce of the colony, naval stores, fish, and fish oil principally, they send them out upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean; where,

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where, having disposed of their cargo, they make what advantage they can by freight, until such time as they can sell the vessel herself to advantage, which they seldom fail to do in a reasonable time.

It was computed, that before the late unhappy differences arose, the amount of English manufactures, and India goods sent into this colony from Great Britain, was not less at an average of three years, than 395,000*l*. Our imports from the same were calculated at 370,500*l*.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] New-England is at present divided into the four provinces of New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. As early as 1606, king James I. had by letters patent erected two companies, with a power to send colonies into those parts, then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north east coast of America was some time called. No settlements, however, were made in New-England, by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themselves with sending out a ship or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fish upon their coast. This continued to be the only sort of correspondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1621. By this time the religious dissentions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Laud persecuted all sorts of non-conformists with an unrelenting severity. Those men, on the other hand, were ready to submit to all the rigour of persecution, rather than depart from their favourite tenets, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they considered as abuses of the most dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly, rather than be compelled to adopt the practices which prevailed in their native country, and as they imagined endangered the eternal salvation of all who adhered to them. America opened an extensive field. There they might transport themselves, and establish whatever sort of religious policy they were inclined to. The design, besides, had something in it noble, and admirably suited to the enterprising spirit of innovators in religion. With this view, having purchased the territory, which was within the jurisdiction of the Plymouth company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of settling it in whatever way they had a mind, 150 persons embarked for New-England, and built a city, which, because they had sailed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithstanding the severity of the climate, the unwholesomeness of the air, and the diseases to which, after a long sea voyage, and in a country, which was new to them, they were exposed;

posed; notwithstanding the want of all sort of conveniences, and even of many of the necessaries of life, those who had constitutions fit to endure such hardships, not dispirited or broken by the death of their companions, and supported by the vigour then peculiar to Englishmen, and the satisfaction of finding themselves beyond the reach of the spiritual arm, set themselves to cultivate this ungrateful country, and to take the best steps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, and finding themselves for the same reasons, uneasy at home, passed over into this land of religious and civil liberty. By the close of the year 1630, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorchester, Charles Town, and Boston, which has since become the capital of New-England. But as necessity is the natural source of that active and frugal industry, which produces every thing great among mankind, so an uninterrupted flow of prosperity and success, occasions those dissensions, which are the bane of human affairs, and often subvert the best founded establishments.

The inhabitants of New-England, who had fled from persecution, became in a short time strongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to introduce an uniformity in religion, among all who entered their territories. The minds of men were not in this age superior to many prejudices; they had not that open and generous way of thinking, which at present distinguishes the natives of Great Britain; and the doctrine of universal toleration, which, to the honour of the first settlers in America, began to appear among them, had few abettors, and many opponents. In all persuasions the bigots are persecutors; the men of a cool and reasonable piety are favourers of toleration; because the former sort of men, not taking the pains to be acquainted with the grounds of their adversaries tenets, conceive them to be so absurd and monstrous, that no man of sense can give into them in good earnest. For which reason they are convinced, that some oblique bad motive induces them to pretend to the belief of such doctrines, and to the maintaining of them with obstinacy. This is a very general principle in all religious differences, and it is the corner stone of all persecution. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the same society, without maintaining the same religious opinions, and wherever these were at variance, the members of different sects kept at a distance from each other, and established separate governments. Hence several slips, torn from the original government of New-England, by religious violence, planted themselves in a new soil, and spread

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over the country. Such was that of New-Hampshire, which continues to this day a separate jurisdiction; such too was that of Rhode Island, whose inhabitants were driven out from the Massachuset colony (for that is the name by which the government first erected in New-England was distinguished) for supporting the freedom of religious sentiment, and maintaining that the civil magistrate had no right over the speculative opinions of mankind. These liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and such is the connection between justness of sentiment, and external prosperity, that the government of Rhode Island, though small, is extremely populous and flourishing. Another colony driven out by the same persecuting spirit, settled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of such as were dissatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America indeed was now become the main resource of all discontented and enterprising spirits, and such were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that in 1637 a proclamation was published, prohibiting any person from sailing thither, without an express license from the government. For want of this license, it is said, that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hamden, and others of that party, were detained from going into New-England, after being a-shipboard for that purpose.

These four provinces, though always confederates for their mutual defence, were at first, and still continue under separate jurisdictions. They were all of them by their charters originally free, and in a great measure independant of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the choice of their own magistrates, the governor, the council, the assembly, and the power of making such laws, as they thought proper, without sending them to Great Britain, for the approbation of the crown. Their laws, however, were not to be opposite to those of Great Britain. Toward the latter end of the reign of Charles II. the Massachuset's colony was accused of violating their charter, and by a judgment in the King's-Bench of England, was deprived of it. From that time to the Revolution, they remained without any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extensive privilege of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, is vested in the crown; the power of the militia is wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, justices, and sheriffs, to whom the execution of the law is entrusted, are nominated by the
governor,

governor, with the advice of the council; the governor has a negative on the choice of counsellors, peremptory, and unlimited; and he is not obliged to give a reason for what he does in this particular, or restrained to any number; authentic copies of the several acts passed by this colony, as well as others, are to be transmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony are not repealed within three years after they are presented, they are not repealable by the crown after that time; that no laws, ordinances, election of magistrates, or acts of government whatsoever, are valid, without the governor's consent in writing; and appeals for sums above 300*l.* are admitted to the king and council. Notwithstanding these restraints, the people have still a great share of power in this colony; for they not only choose the assembly, but this assembly, with the governor's concurrence, choose the council, resembling our house of lords, and the governor depends upon the assembly for his annual support; which has sometimes tempted the governor of this province to give up the prerogative of the crown, and the interests of Great Britain.

To the Massachusetts government is united the ancient colony of Plymouth, and the territory called Main.

By the laws of this province no person can be arrested, if there are any means of satisfaction; nor imprisoned, unless there be a concealment of effects. Adultery is death to both parties.

New-Hampshire is still more under the influence of Great Britain. The council itself is appointed by the crown, and in other respects it agrees with the former.

The colonies of Connecticut and Rhode Island, have preserved their ancient charters, and enjoy the same privileges which the Massachusetts did formerly.

There were originally three sorts of governments established by the English on the continent of America, viz. royal governments, charter governments, and proprietary governments.

A royal government is properly so called, because the colony is immediately dependent on the crown; and the king remains sovereign of the colony; he appoints the governor, council, and officers of state, and the people only elect the representatives, as in England; such are the governments of Canada, Nova Scotia, Virginia, New-Hampshire, New-York, New-Jersey, and both Carolinas, Georgia, East and West-Florida, the West-India islands, and that of St. John's.

A charter government is so called, because the company, incorporated by the king's charter, were in a manner vested

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with sovereign authority, to establish what sort of government they thought fit; and these charter governments have generally transferred their authority to the people; for in such governments, or rather corporations, the freemen do not only choose their representatives, but annually choose their governor, council and magistrates, and make laws, without the concurrence, and even without the knowledge of the king; and are under no other restraint than this, that they enact no laws contrary to the laws of England; if they do, their charters are liable to be forfeited. Such, as we have already observed, are the governments of Rhode Island, and Connecticut, in New-England, and such was that of the Massachuset's formerly, but it appears now to be a mixture of both. Such likewise was the two Carolinas.

The third kind of government is the proprietary, properly so called, because the proprietor is invested with sovereign authority: he appoints the governor, council, and magistrates, and the representatives are summoned in his name, and by their advice he enacts laws, without the concurrence of the crown; but, by a late statute, the proprietor must have the king's consent in the appointing a governor, when he does not reside in the plantation in person, and of a deputy governor, when he does. And all the governors of the plantations are liable to be called to an account for their administration, by the court of King's Bench. The only proprietary governments now remaining, are those of Pennsylvania and Maryland.

NEW YORK.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---------|--------|-----------|-----------------------------|
| Length | 300 | } between | { 40 and 46 north latitude. |
| Breadth | 150 | | |

BOUNDARIES.] **N**EW YORK is bounded on the south and south-west, by Hudson's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jersey and Pennsylvania; on the east and north-east, by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the north-west, by Canada.

This province, including the Island of New York, Long-Island, and Staten-Island, is divided into the ten following counties:

| Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|--|--------------|
| New York — — } NEW YORK { 40-40 N. lat. 74-00 W. lon. | |
| Albany — — — Albany | |
| Ulster — — — } None | |
| Duchefs — — — } | |
| Orange — — — Orange | |
| West-Chester — — — West-Chester | |
| King's — — — None | |
| Queen's — — — Jamaica | |
| Suffolk — — — Southampton | |
| Richmond — — — Richmond. | |

RIVERS.] The principal of these are Hudson's and the Mohawk; the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well stored with great variety of fish: on this the cities of New York and Albany are situated. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which is said to fall 70 feet perpendicular, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

CAVES.] These are Cape May, on the east entrance of Delaware river; Sandy-Hook, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montock Point, at the east end of Long-Island.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This province, lying to the south of New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all constitutions. The face of the country, resembling that of our other colonies in America, is low, flat, and marshy towards the sea. As you recede from the coast, the eye is entertained with the gradual swelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The soil is extremely fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the same with that of New England. A great deal of iron is found here.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The Swedes and Dutch were the first Europeans who formed settlements on this part of the American coast. The tract claimed by the two nations, extended from the 38th to the 41st degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II. who obtained it from them by right of conquest in 1664, and it was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our possession, before they were divided into different provinces. New York took that name from the king's brother, James, duke of York, to whom the king granted

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granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent, dated March 20, 1664. On James's accession to the throne, the right to New York became vested in the crown, since which time it has been a royal government. The king appoints the governor and council; and the people, once in seven years, elect their representatives to serve in general assembly. These three branches of the legislature (answering to those of Great Britain) have power to make any laws not repugnant to those of England; but, in order to their being valid, the royal assent to them must first be obtained.

CITIES, POPULATION, COMMERCE, } The city of New
RELIGION AND LEARNING. } York stands on the
south-west end of York-Island, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, extremely well situated for trade, at the mouth of Hudson's river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from Albany and many other inland towns towards Canada and the lakes. This city is in length above a mile, and its mean breadth a quarter of a mile. The city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery: in the front is a spacious mansion house for the use of the governor. Many of the houses are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine prospect. The greatest part of the inhabitants, who are computed at 12 or 15,000, are descended from the Dutch families who remained here after the surrender of the New Netherlands to the English, and the whole province is supposed to contain between 80 and 100,000. The better sort are rich and hospitable, the lower ranks are easy in their circumstances; and both are endowed with a generous and liberal turn of mind, which renders their society and conversation more agreeable than in most countries either of Europe or America.

The commerce of this province does not materially differ from that of New England. The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the same with those which the New Englanders use; and they have a share in the log-wood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spanish and French plantations. They take almost the same sort of commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boston. At an average of three years, their exports are said to amount to 526,000 l. and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000 l.

All religious denominations, except Jews and Papists, enjoy equal privileges here, as there is no established church, unless the eighth article of the capitulation, made on the surrender of the place ("The Dutch shall enjoy the liberty of their consciences in divine worship and church discipline") may be

termed an establishment. Judaism is tolerated, but popery is not. The inhabitants of the province consist chiefly of Dutch, English, and Scots presbyterians, German Calvinists, Lutherans, quakers, baptists, &c. who have their respective houses of worship. The Dutch presbyterians being in subordination to the Classis of Amsterdam, send all their youth, who are intended for the ministry, to Holland for ordination, as the episcopalians do theirs to England. The English presbyterians are on the model of the church of Scotland*.

A college was erected in New York, by act of parliament, about the year 1755; but as the assembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reason never met with the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a public seminary in so populous a city. It contains at present about twenty students.

NEW JERSEY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | Degrees. |
|------------|--|
| Length 160 | } between { 39 and 43 north latitude. 74 and 76 west longitude. |
| Breadth 60 | |

BOUNDARIES. **N**EW JERSEY is bounded on the west and south-west, by Delaware river and Bay; on the south-east and east, by the Atlantic Ocean; and by the Sound, which separates Staten Island from the continent, and Hudson's river, on the north.

| Divisions. | Counties. | Chief Towns. | |
|---------------------------|------------|---|------------|
| East Division contains | Middlesex | } Perth-Amboy and New-Brunswick | |
| | Monmouth | | None |
| | Essex | } Elizabeth and Newark | |
| | Somerfet | | None |
| | Bergen | | Bergen. |
| West division contains | Burlington | } BURLINGTON { 40-8 N. lat. 75-0 W. lon. | |
| | Gloucester | | Gloucester |
| | Salem | Salem | |
| | Cumberland | Hopewell | |
| | Cape May | None | |
| | Hunterdon | Trenton | |
| | Morris | Morris | |
| Suffex | None. | | |

* In the year 1770, the number of places for public worship in the city of New York stood as follows;

| | | | | | | |
|---------------------|---|---|-------------------|---|---|---|
| Dutch presbyterians | — | 3 | Baptists | — | — | 1 |
| English ditto | — | 2 | Moravians | — | — | 1 |
| Scotch ditto | — | 1 | German Calvinists | — | — | 2 |
| Episcopalians | — | 3 | ———— Lutherans | — | — | 1 |
| French refugees | — | 1 | Methodists | — | — | 1 |
| Quakers | — | 1 | Jews | — | — | 1 |

ed, but popery is chiefly of Dutch, Calvinists, Lutheran, respective houses in subordination of youth, who are ordination, as the English presbyter and*.
 act of parliament, was at that time contracted plan, and arrangement which primary in so populous students.

North latitude.
 West longitude.
 bounded on the East, by Delaware, by the Atlantic States Island from North.
 Newark

{ 40-8 N. lat.
 { 75-0 W. lon.

Ship in the city of New

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| — | — | 1 |
| — | — | 1 |
| s | — | 2 |
| s | — | 1 |
| — | — | 1 |
| — | — | 1 |

BRITISH AMERICA. 389

RIVERS.] These are Delaware, Raritan, and Passaic, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock from which the water falls is said to be about 70 feet perpendicular, and the river there 80 yards broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is much the same with that of New York; the soil is various, at least one fourth part of the province is barren sandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, COMMERCE, RELIGION, AND LEARNING. } New Jersey is part of that vast tract of land, which we have observed was given by king Charles II. to his brother, James duke of York: he sold it, for a valuable consideration, to lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret, (from whom it received its present name, because Sir George had, as the family still have, estates in the island of Jersey) and they again to others, who in the year 1702 made a surrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which she accepted: since that time it has been a royal government. By an account published in 1765, the number of inhabitants appears to have been about 100,000. Perth-Amboy and Burlington are the seats of government; the governor generally resides in the latter, which is pleasantly situated on the fine river Delaware, within 20 miles of Philadelphia. The former is as good a port as most on the continent; and the harbour is safe, and capacious enough to contain many large ships. This province has no foreign trade worth mentioning, owing to its vicinity to the large trading cities of New York and Philadelphia, by which it is supplied with merchandizes of all kinds, and makes returns to them in lumber, wheat, flour, &c. In Bergen county is a very valuable copper mine.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] The state of religion here may be seen by the following list of the houses for public worship throughout the province, which was made in 1765 by a member of the council for the province*.

Learning has of late been greatly encouraged in this province. A college was established at the town of Princeton, by governor Belcher in 1746, and has a power of conferring

| | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|----|-------------|---|---|--------|-----|
| * English and Scotch presbyterians | 57 | Moravians | — | — | — | 1 |
| Quakers | 39 | Separatists | — | — | — | 1 |
| Dutch presbyterians | — | Rogereens | — | — | — | 1 |
| Episcopalian | 22 | | | | | |
| Baptists | 22 | | | | | |
| Lutherans | 7 | | | | | |
| | | | | | In all | 172 |

degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There are generally between 80 and 100 students here, who come from all parts of the continent, some even from the extremities of it,

P E N S Y L V A N I A,

SITUATION AND EXTENT,

| | | | |
|-------------|-------------|-----------|---------------|
| Miles. | | Degrees. | |
| Length 300 | } between { | 74 and 81 | W. longitude. |
| Breadth 240 | | 39 and 44 | N. latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or five nations, on the north; by Delaware river, which divides it from the Jerseys, on the east; and by Maryland, on the south and west, and contains the following counties.

| Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|----------------------|---|
| Philadelphia ———— } | PHILADELPHIA, } N. lat. 40. } W. lon. 75-20, |
| Chester — — — — — | Chester |
| Bucks — — — — — | Newtown |
| Berks — — — — — | Reading |
| Northampton — — — — | Easton |
| Lancaster — — — — — | Lancaster |
| York — — — — — | York |
| Cumberland — — — — — | Carlisle |

Besides the above, there are the three following

| Counties, | Chief Towns. |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Newcastle } Kent and } Suffex } | on Delaware { Newcastle { Dover { Lewes, |

which form in some measure a distinct government, having an assembly of their own, though the same governor with the province of Pennsylvania.

RIVERS.] The rivers are Delaware, which is navigable for vessels of one sort or other, more than 200 miles above Philadelphia. Susquehanna, and Schuylkill, are also navigable a considerable way up the country. These rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks, in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largest fleets, render this province admirably suited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND } The face of the country,
FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } air, soil, and produce, do
not materially differ from that of New-York. If there be
any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is
sweet

sweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are so extremely cold and severe, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months of July, August, and September, are almost intolerably hot, but the country is refreshed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked in general, that in all parts of our plantations from New-York to the southern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four species, all different from those we have in Europe. But, whether from some fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the soil where they grow, or what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deserves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a sort of wine, with which they regale themselves. It may also be observed of the timber of these colonies, that towards the south it is not so good for shipping, as that of the more northern provinces. The further southward you go, the timber becomes less compact, and rives easily; which property, as it renders it less servicable for ships, makes it more useful for staves.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, SETTLEMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally possessed by the Dutch and Swedes. When these nations, however, were expelled from New-York, by the English, admiral Pen, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the island of Jamaica, being well with Charles II. obtained a promise of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his son, the celebrated quaker, availed himself of this promise, and after much court solicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine, Mr. Pen be little known, but to those of his own persuasion, his reputation in a character no less respectable, is universal among all civilized nations. The circumstances of the times engaged vast numbers to follow him into his new settlement, to avoid the persecutions, to which the quakers, like other sectaries, were then exposed, but it was to his own wisdom and ability, that they are indebted for that charter of privileges, which has put this colony on so respectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty in the utmost latitude, was laid down by that great man, as the great and only foundation of all his institutions. Christians of all denominations might not only live unmolested, but have a share in the government of the colony*. No laws

B b 4 can

* At present the church of England is but barely tolerated here.

A. are generally from all parts of it.

A. longitude. latitude. country of the s, on the north; Jerseys, on the st, and contains

N. lat. 40. W. lon. 75-20.

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of the country, and produce, do t. If there be ce. The air is sweet

can be made but by the consent of the inhabitants. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Pen subjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court constituted for that purpose. The causes between man and man were not to be subjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wise and honest arbitrators. His benevolence and generosity extended also to the Indian nations: instead of immediately taking advantage of his patent, he purchased of these people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and eldest right, was vested in them. William Pen, in short, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his statue placed next to that of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the solid basis of equity, still maintain their force; and as a proof of their effects, it is only necessary to mention that land is now granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four shillings reserved, whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted were at twenty pound the thousand acres, with one shilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, land rents at twenty shillings the acre, and even at several miles distance from that city, sells at twenty years purchase.

In some years, more people have transported themselves into Pennsylvania, than into all the other settlements together. In short, this province has increased so greatly from the time of its first establishment, that the number of inhabitants in the whole province, is computed at 350,000. Upon the principal rivers settlements are made, and the country cultivated 150 miles above Philadelphia. The people are hardy, industrious, and most of them substantial, though but few of the landed people can be considered as rich; but they are all well lodged, well fed, and, for their condition, well clad; and this at the more easy rate, as the inferior people manufacture most of their own wear, both linens and woollens.

This province contains many very considerable towns, such as German town, Chester, Oxford, Radnor, all which, in any other colony, would deserve being taken notice of more particularly. But here the city of Philadelphia, containing upwards of 30,000 inhabitants, beautiful beyond any city of America, and in regularity unequalled by any in Europe, totally eclipses the rest, and deserves all our attention. It was built after the plan of the famous Pen, the founder and legislator of this colony. It is situated 100 miles from the sea, between two navigable rivers, the Delaware, where it is above a mile in breadth on the north, and the Schuylkill, on the south, which it unites as it were, by running in a line of two
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miles between them. The whole town, when the original plan can be fully executed, is in this manner; every quarter of the city forms a square of eight acres, and almost in the center of it, is a square of ten acres, surrounded by the town-house, and other public buildings. The High Street is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole breadth of the town: parallel to it run nineteen other streets, which are crossed by eight more at right angles, all of them 30 feet wide, and communicating with canals, from the two rivers, which add not only to the beauty, but to the wholesomeness of the city. According to the original plan, every man in possession of 1000 acres in the province, had his house either in one of the fronts, facing the rivers, or in the High Street, running from the middle of one front, to the middle of the other. Every owner of 5000 acres, besides the above-mentioned privilege, was entitled to have an acre of ground in the front of his house, and all others might have half an acre for gardens and court yards. The proprietor's seat, which is the usual place of the governor's residence, and is about a mile above the town, is the first private building both for magnificence and situation in all British America. The barracks for the king's troops, the market and other public buildings, are proportionably grand. The quays are spacious and fine, the principal quay is 200 feet wide, and to this a vessel of 500 tons may lay her broadside, though above 100 miles from the sea.

There are in this city a great number of very wealthy merchants; which is no way surprizing, when we consider the great trade which it carries on with the English, Spanish, French and Dutch colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira islands; with Great Britain and Ireland; with Spain, Portugal and Holland. Besides the Indian trade, and the quantity of grain, provisions, and all kinds of the produce of this province, which is brought down the rivers upon which this city is so commodiously situated, the Germans, who are settled in the interior parts of this province, employ several hundred waggons, drawn each by four horses, in bringing the product of their farms to this market. In the year 1749, 303 vessels entered inwards at this port, and 291 cleared outwards.

The commodities exported from Great Britain into Pennsylvania, at an average of three years, amount to the value of 611,000l. Those exported to Great Britain and other markets, besides timber, ships built for sale, copper ore, and iron in pigs and bars, consist of grain, flour, and many sorts of animal

animal food; and at an average of three years, are calculated at 705,500 l.

There is a flourishing academy established at Philadelphia, which has been greatly encouraged by contributions from England, and Scotland, and which bids fair to become a bright seminary of learning.

MARYLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | | | |
|---------|--------|-------------|-------------------------|
| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
| Length | 140 | } between { | 75 and 80 W. longitude. |
| Breadth | 135 | | 37 and 40 N. latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Pennsylvania, on the north; by another part of Pennsylvania, and the Atlantic ocean, on the east; by Virginia, on the south; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the west.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Chesapeak, viz. 1. The eastern; and 2. The western division.

| Divisions. | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|--|----------------------|-----------------------|
| The east division contains the counties of | Worcester ——— | Princess Anne |
| | Somerſet ——— | Snow Hill |
| | Dorſet ——— | Dorſet, or Dorcheſter |
| | Talbot ——— | Oxford |
| | Cecil ——— | Queen's Town |
| The west division contains | Queen Anne's ——— | Cheſter. |
| | Kent ——— | St. Mary's |
| | St. Mary's county — | Briſtol |
| | Charles county — | Maſterkout |
| | Prince George county | Abington |
| | Calvert county — | ANNAPOLIS, W. lon. |
| | Arundel county — | 76-50. N. lat. 39. |
| Baltimore county | Baltimore. | |
| Frederic county — | | |

RIVERS.] This country is indented with a vaſt number of navigable creeks and rivers. The chief are Patowmac, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, Severn and Saſſafras.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, } In theſe particulars this pro-
AIR, SOIL AND PRODUCE. } vince has nothing particular
 by which it may be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe already deſcribed. The hills in the inland country are of ſo eaſy aſcent, that they rather ſeem an artificial than a natural production. The vaſt number of rivers diffuſes fertility through the ſoil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco, which is the ſtaple

staple commodity of that country, hemp, Indian corn and grain, which they now begin to cultivate in preference to tobacco.

COMMERCE.] The commerce of Maryland depends on the same principles with that of Virginia, and is so closely connected with it, that any separation of them would rather confuse than edify. It will be considered therefore under that head.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] It seems as if all the provinces of North America were planted from motives of religion. Maryland, like those we have formerly described, owes its settlement to religious considerations. As they however were peopled by protestants, and even sectaries, Maryland was originally planted by Roman-catholics. This sect, towards the close of Charles I.'s reign, was the object of great hatred with the bulk of the English nation; the laws in force against the Roman-catholics, were executed with the utmost severity. This in part arose from an opinion, perhaps not without some foundation, that the court was too favourably disposed towards this form of religion. It is certain, that many marks of favour were conferred on Roman-catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the most eminent, one in greatest favour with the court, and on that account most odious to the generality of Englishmen. This nobleman, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country, which formerly was considered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of queen Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. and spouse to king Charles. The year following about 200 popish families, some of considerable distinction, embarked with lord Baltimore, to enter into possession of this new territory. These settlers, who had that liberality and good breeding, which distinguishes gentlemen of every religion, bought their lands at an easy price from the native Indians; they even lived with them for some time in the same city; and the same harmony continued to subsist between the two nations, until the Indians were imposed on by the malicious insinuations of some planters in Virginia, who envied the prosperity of this popish colony, and inflamed the Indians against them by ill-grounded reports, but such as were sufficient to stir up the resentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reason to be so. The colony, however, was not wanting to its own safety on this occasion. Though they continued their friendly intercourse with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and to use every other precaution for their defence against sudden hostilities; the defeat of this attempt gave a new spring to the activity of this plantation: which was likewise receiving frequent reinforcements from England of those who found themselves

themselves in danger by the approaching revolution. But during the protectorship of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland. Baltimore was ungenerously deprived of his rights, and a new governor, appointed by the protector, substituted in his room. At the restoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural possessor. Baltimore was reinstated in his rights, and fully discovered how well he deserved to be so. He established a perfect toleration in all religious matters: the colony encreased and flourished, and dissenters of all denominations, allured by the prospect of gain, flocked into Maryland. The tyrannical government of James II. which without discernment of friends or enemies, but with the fury of a mad-dog, snapped at every thing before it, again deprived this noble family of their possession, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expence. At the revolution, however, lord Baltimore was again restored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not consistently be conferred on a Roman-catholic. But since the family have changed their religion, they have obtained the power as well as the interest. At present but a small part of it belongs to that family. The government of this country exactly resembles that in Virginia, except that the governor is appointed by the proprietors, and only confirmed by the crown. The customs too are reserved to the crown, and the officers belonging to them are independent of the government of the province. So far is Maryland from being at present a popish government, that the protestants, by far more numerous, have excluded them from all offices of trust and power. They have even adopted the penal laws of England against them. The church of England is by law established here, and the clergy are paid in tobacco: a tax for this purpose is annually levied, and every male white person above the age of 16 is obliged to pay 40 lb. of tobacco (or if he raises no tobacco, he must take an oath that he does not, and pay the value in cash;) dissenting clergy are not exempted.

VIRGINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|-------------|-------------|-------------------------|
| Length 750 | } between { | 75 and 90 W. longitude. |
| Breadth 240 | | 36 and 40 N. latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the river Patowmac, which divides it from Maryland, on the north-east; by the Atlantic ocean, on the east; by Carolina, on the south; and by the river Mississippi, on the west.

It may be divided into four parts, viz. The north : The middle : The south : And, the eastern division.

| Divisions. | Counties. | Parishes. |
|--|--------------------------|--|
| The north division contains | 1. Northumberland | Wincomoca Christ-Church |
| | 2. Lancashire | |
| | 3. Westmoreland | St. Paul's. Farnham Christ-Church Abingdon Stratton |
| | 4. Richmond | |
| | 5. Stafford | |
| The middle division contains | 6. Essex | St. John's St. Peter's Elizabeth Denby York Lynhaven. Elizabeth Chutakuk Newport Southwark Wyanoke Westover Bristol James Town WILLIAMS- BURG, 37-15 N. 76-50 W. |
| | 7. Middlesex | |
| | 8. Gloucester | |
| | 9. King and Queen county | |
| | 10. King William county | |
| | 11. New Kent | |
| | 12. Elizabeth county | |
| | 13. Warwick county | |
| | 14. York county | |
| | 15. Princess Anne county | |
| The south division contains | 16. Norfolk county | Acomac. |
| | 17. Nansamund county | |
| | 18. Isle of Wight county | |
| | 19. Surry county | |
| | 20. Prince George county | |
| | 21. Charles county | |
| | 22. Henrico county | |
| | 23. James county | |
| The eastern division between Chesapeak bay and the ocean | 24. Acomac county | |

CAPES, BAYS AND RIVERS.] In sailing to Virginia or Maryland, you pass a streight between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a passage into the bay of Chesapeak, one of the largest and safest in the whole world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the south to the north, is about 18 miles broad for a considerable way, and seven where it is narrowest, the waters in most places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vast number of navigable rivers from the sides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, besides others of less note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannock, and the Patowmac; these are not only navigable for large ships into the heart of the country, but have so many creeks, and receive such a number of smaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is without all manner of doubt the country of

the world of the most convenient navigation. It has been observed, and the observation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The whole face of this country is so extremely low towards the sea, that you are very near the shore, before you can discover land from the mast-head. The lofty trees, which cover the soil, gradually rise as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting prospect. You travel 100 miles into the country, without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extensive coast of North America.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] In summer the heats here are excessive, tho' not without refreshing breezes from the sea. The weather is changeable, and the changes sudden and violent. Their winter frosts come on with the least warning. To a warm day, there sometimes succeeds such an intense cold in the evening as to freeze over the largest rivers.

The air and seasons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryness and moisture. In winter they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleasant. Their spring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June, the heat increases; and the summer is much like ours, being refreshed with gentle breezes from the sea, that rise about nine o'clock, and decrease and increase as the sun rises or falls. In July and August these breezes cease, and the air becomes stagnant, and violently hot; in September the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occasion all the train of diseases incident to a moist climate, particularly agues, and intermitting fevers. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any mischief.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Towards the sea-shore, and the banks of the rivers, the soil of Virginia consists of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a distance from the water there is a lightness and sandiness in the soil, which however is of a generous nature, and helped by a kindly sun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well.

From what has been said of the soil and climate, it is easy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The forests are covered with all sorts of lofty trees; and no underwood or brush grows beneath; so that people travel with ease through the forests on horseback, under a fine shade, to defend them from the sun; the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering shrubs of the richest colours, and most fragrant scent. Silk grows spontaneous in

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frequent thunder

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many places, the fibres of which are as strong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the snake root, and the ginseng of the Chinese, are here in great plenty. There is no sort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants however are so engrossed with the culture of the tobacco plant, that they think, if corn sufficient for their support can be reared, they do enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced not only for their own consumption, but for export, though not in such quantities as they might be expected from the nature of the soil, admirably fitted for producing this commodity.

ANIMALS.] We shall here observe, that there were neither horses, cows, sheep, nor hogs in America, before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied so extremely that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the southern colonies, run wild. Beef and pork is sold here from one penny to twopence a pound; their fattest pullets at sixpence a-piece; chickens, at three or four shillings a dozen; geese, at ten pence; and turkeys, at eighteen pence a-piece. But fish, and wild fowl, are still cheaper in the season, and deer are sold from five to ten shillings a-piece. This estimate may serve for the other American colonies, where provisions are equally plentiful and cheap, and in some still lower. Besides the animals transported from Europe, those natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a sort of panther or tyger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewise that singular animal, called the Opossum, which seems to be the wood-rat mentioned by Charlevoix, in his history of Canada. It is about the size of a cat, and besides the belly common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itself, and which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture, towards the hinder legs, which discovers a large number of teats on the usual part of the common belly. Upon these, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang like fruit upon the stalk, until they grow in bulk and weight to their appointed size; then they drop off, and are received into the false belly, from which they go out at pleasure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all sorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, called from the country, whose plumage is crimson and blue; the mocking bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and including that of every one; the humming bird, the smallest of all the winged creation, and by far the most beautiful, all arrayed in scarlet, green and gold. It sips the dew from the flowers,
which

which is all its nourishment, and is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } This is the first country which the English planted in America. We derived our right, not only to this, but to all our other settlements, as has been already observed, from the discovery of Sebastian Cabot, who, in 1497, first made the northern continent of America, in the service of Henry VII. of England. No attempts, however, were made to settle it, till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that Sir Walter Raleigh, the most extraordinary genius of the age in which he lived, perhaps in any age, applied to court, and got together a company which was composed of several persons of distinction and several eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade and settle a colony in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, several attempts were made for settling this colony before any proved successful. The three first companies who sailed into Virginia perished through hunger and diseases, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced almost to the same situation; and, being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had set sail for England, in despair of living in such an uncultivated country, inhabited by such hostile and warlike savages. But in the mouth of Chesapeak bay, they were met by lord Delaware, with a squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion they returned: by his advice, his prudence, and winning behaviour, the government of the colony was settled within itself, and put on a respectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromising province of Virginia from the noblest motives, was compelled, by the decayed state of his health, to return into England. He left behind him, however, his son, as deputy; with Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them, James-Town, the first town built by the English in the new world, was erected. The colony continued to flourish, and the true sources of its wealth began to be discovered and improved. The first settlers, like those of Maryland, were generally persons of consideration and distinction. It remained a steady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the Cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and under the government of Sir William Berkley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by stratagem than force, reduced them. After the

the Restoration, there is nothing very interesting in the history of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman, named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himself of some discontents in the colony, on account of restraints on trade, became very popular, and set every thing in confusion. His natural death, however, restored peace and unanimity; and the inhabitants of Virginia ceased to destroy themselves.

The government of this province was not at first adapted to the principles of the English constitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty to which a subject of Great-Britain thinks himself entitled in every part of the globe. It was governed by a governor and council, appointed by the king of Great-Britain. As the inhabitants encreased, the inconveniency of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the constitution, by which the people, who had formerly no consideration, were allowed to elect their representatives from each county, into which this country is divided, with privileges resembling those of the representatives of the commons of England. Thus two houses, the upper and lower house of assembly, were formed. The upper house, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing; its members are appointed, during pleasure, by the crown; they are stiled Honourable, and answer in some measure to the house of peers in the British constitution. The lower house is the guardian of the peoples liberties. And thus, with a governor representing the king, an upper and lower house of assembly, this government bears a striking resemblance to our own. When any bill has passed the two houses, it comes before the governor, who gives his assent or negative as he thinks proper. It now acquires the force of a law, until it be transmitted to England, and his majesty's pleasure known on that subject. The upper house of assembly acts not only as a part of the legislature, but also as a privy-council to the governor, without whose concurrence he can do nothing of moment: it sometimes acts as a court of Chancery.

The number of white people in Virginia, which is daily encreasing, is supposed to amount to above 100,000. The negroes, of whom some thousands are annually imported into Virginia and Maryland, are at least as many; they thrive too much better here than in the West Indies. The inhabitants of Virginia are a chearful, hospitable, and in general a genteel sort of people: some of them are accused of vanity and ostentation; which accusation is not without some ground. Here are only two towns that deserve that name; the largest of which, and the capital of the province, is Williamsburg,

containing about sixty houses, and some spacious public buildings.

In the following account of the commerce of Virginia, is also included that of Maryland. These provinces are supposed to export, of tobacco alone, to the annual value of 768,000 l. into Great-Britain. This, at eight pounds per hoghead, makes the number of hogheads amount to 96,000. Of these, it is computed that about 13,500 hogheads are consumed at home, the duty on which, at 26 l. 1 s. per hoghead, comes to 351,675 l. the remaining 82,500 hogheads are exported by our merchants to the other countries of Europe, and their value returned to Great-Britain. The advantages of this trade appear by the bare mention of it. It may not be improper to add, that this single branch employs 330 sail of ships, and 7960 seamen. Not only our wealth therefore, but the very sinews of our national strength are powerfully braced by it. The other commodities of these colonies, of which naval stores, wheat, Indian corn, iron in pigs and bars, are the most considerable, make the whole exportation, at an average of three years, amount to 1,040,000 l. The exports of Great-Britain, the same as to our other colonies, at a like average, come to 865,000 l.

Though an intire toleration be allowed to all religions in this country, there are few dissenters from the church of England. The bishop of London sends over a superintendant to inspect the character of the clergy; who live comfortably here, (a priest to each parish) with about 100 l. per annum, paid in tobacco.

Here is also a college, founded by king William, called William and Mary college, who gave 2000 l. towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchase and hold lands to the value of 2000 l. a year, and a duty of one penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a president, six professors, and other officers, who are named by the governors or visitors. The honourable Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to the college for the education of Indian children.

NORTH and SOUTH CAROLINA, with GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---------|--------|-----------|-----------------------------|
| Length | 700 | } between | { 76 and 91 west longitude. |
| Breadth | 380 | | { 30 and 37 north latitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Virginia, on the north ; by the Atlantic ocean, on the east ; by the river St. John, which separates Georgia from Florida, on the south ; and by the Mississippi, on the west.

| Divisions. | Counties. | Towns. |
|--|---|--|
| North Carolina contains the counties of _____ | { Albemarle — Bath county, and Clarendon in part } | { Divided into parishes, but have no towns. |
| The middle division, or South Carolina, contains the counties of _____ | { Clarendon in part Craven county — Berkley county — Colleton county — Granville county — } | { St. James Christ-Church CHARLES-TOWN, W. lon. 79-15. N. lat. 32-45. Port-Royal. |
| The south-division contains only | { Georgia — } | { Savannah Frederica Purifburgh. |

RIVERS.] These are the Roanoke, or Albemarle river ; Pamlico ; Neus ; Cape Fear, or Clarendon river ; Pedee ; Santee ; Savannah ; Alatomaha, or George river, and St. Mary's, which divides Georgia from Florida : all which rivers rise in the Apalachian mountains, and running east, fall into the Atlantic Ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yafous, Mobile, Apalachicola, the Pearl river, and many other noble streams which fall into the Mississippi or the gulph of Mexico.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The only sea bordering on this country is that of the Atlantic ocean ; which is so shallow near the coast, that a ship of any great burden cannot approach it, except in some few places. There has not yet been found one good harbour in North Carolina ; the best are those of Roanoke, at the mouth of Albemarle river, and Pamlico. In South Carolina, there are the harbours of Winyaw, or George-Town, Charles-Town, and Port-Royal. In Georgia, the mouths of the rivers Savannah and Alatomaha form good harbours.

The most remarkable promontories are, Cape Hatteras, in 35 deg. odd minutes north lat. Cape Fear to the south of it, and Cape Cartaret still further south.

CLIMATE AND AIR.] There is not any considerable difference between the climate of these countries. In general it agrees with that of Virginia ; but, where they differ, it is much to the advantage of Carolina. The summers indeed

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are of a more intense heat than in Virginia, but the winters are milder and shorter. The climate of Carolina, like all American weather, is subject to sudden transitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat; but not to such violent extremities as Virginia. The winters are seldom severe enough to freeze any considerable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the frosts have never sufficient strength to resist the noon-day sun; so that many tender plants, which do not stand the winter of Virginia, flourish in Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-Town, and excellent in their kinds, both sweet and sour.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE } In this respect too there is
OF THE COUNTRY. } a considerable coincidence

between these countries and Virginia: the Carolinas, however, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage; but Georgia is not of near so good a soil as the other provinces. The whole country is in a manner one forest, where our planters have not cleared it. The trees are almost the same in every respect with those produced in Virginia; and by the different species of these, the quality of the soil is easily known. The land in Carolina is easily cleared, as there is little or no underwood, and the forests mostly consist of tall trees at a considerable distance. Those grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile; they are of a dark sand intermixed with loam; and as all their land abounds with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhausted; for here they never use any manure. The pine barren is the worst of all; this is an almost perfectly white sand, yet it bears the pine tree, and some other useful plants naturally, yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this species of land is cleared, for two or three years together it produces very good crops of Indian corn and pease; and, when it lies low, and is flooded, it even answers for rice. But what is most fortunate for this province is, that this worst part of its land is favourable to a species of the most valuable of all its products, to one of the kinds of indigo. The low, rich, swampy grounds, bear their great staple, rice. The country near the sea is much the worst, in many parts little better than an unhealthy salt marsh; for Carolina is all an even plain for 80 miles from the sea, not a hill, not a rock, nor scarce even a pebble to be met with. But the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at 100 miles distance from Charles-Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpose of human life; nor can any thing be imagined more pleasant to the eye than the variegated disposition of this back country. Here the

the

the air is pure and wholesome, and the summer heat much more temperate than in the flat sandy coast.

In Carolina, the vegetation of every kind of plant is incredibly quick. The climate and soil have something in them so kindly, that the latter, when left to itself, naturally throws out an immense quantity of flowers and flowering shrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement we might have silk, wine, and oil from those colonies: of the first we have seen samples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. Wheat grows extremely well in the back parts, and yields a prodigious increase.

From what we have observed of these valuable provinces, their productions appear to be, vines, wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, pease, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, orange, citron, cypress, sassafras, oak, walnut, cassia, and pine trees; white mulberry-trees for feeding silk-worms; sarsaparilla, and pines which yield turpentine, rosin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds; and another, which yields a balm, thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees beside these, that yield gums. The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent spirits, and mead as good as Malaga sack. Of all these, the three great staple commodities at present are, the indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing surprises an European more at first sight, than the size of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above 36 feet in circumference. Of these trunks, when hollowed, the people of Charles-Town as well as the Indians make canoes, which serve to transport provisions and other goods from place to place, and some of them are so large, that they will carry 30 or 40 barrels of pitch, though formed of one entire piece of timber. Of these are likewise made curious pleasure-boats.

ANIMALS.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from those of Virginia; but in Carolina they have a still greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiously: to have 2 or 300 cows is very common, but some have 1000 or upwards. These ramble all day at pleasure in the forests; but their calves being separated and kept in fenced pastures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the same manner, and return like the cows; these

are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horses, in the woods. It is surprising that the cattle should have encreased so quickly since their being first imported from Europe, while there are such numbers of wolves, tygers, and panthers, constantly ranging the woods and forests. We have already observed that these animals are less ravenous than the beasts of Africa and Asia; they very seldom attempt to kill either calves or foals in America, and when attacked, their dams make a vigorous defence.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPU- } The first English ex-
LATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND } peditions into Caro-
COMMERCE. } lina were unfortu-

nate. Nothing successful was done in this way till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time several English noblemen, and others of great distinction, obtained a charter from the crown, investing them with the property and jurisdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to such as were willing to go over into the new settlement, and to submit to a system of laws, which they employed the famous Locke to compose for them.

They began their first settlement at a point of land towards the southward of their district, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city, called Charles-Town, which was designed to be what it now is, the capital of the province. In time, however, as no restriction had been laid upon the religious principles of those who settled in Carolina, the disputes between the church of England-men and dissenters caused a total confusion in the colony. This was rendered still more intolerable by the incursions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their insolence and injustice. In order to prevent the fatal consequences of these intestine divisions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was passed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords proprietors accepted a recompence of about 24,000 l. for both the property and jurisdiction; and the constitution of this colony in those respects in which it differed from the royal colonies was altered. Earl Granville, however, thought fit to retain his seventh share, which is still in the possession of his family. For the more convenient administration of affairs too, Carolina was divided into two districts, and two separate governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time, peace being restored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, these provinces began to breathe; and their trade has advanced of late with wonderful rapidity.

The

The settlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when several public-spirited noblemen and others, from compassion to the poor of these kingdoms, subscribed a considerable sum, which, with 10,000*l.* from the government, was given to provide in necessaries such poor persons as were willing to transport themselves into this province, and to submit to the regulations imposed on them. In process of time, new sums were raised, and new inhabitants sent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 persons were settled in this province. It was not, however, to be expected that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed as they were at a great distance from their benefactors, and from the check and controul of those who had a natural influence over them, would submit to the magistrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themselves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increased in numbers and opulence, they thought it hard that they should be deprived of. From these corrupt sources arose all the bad humours which tore to pieces this constitution of government. Dissensions of all kinds sprung up, and the colony was on the brink of destruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the same footing with the Carolinas.

The method of settling in Carolina, and indeed in other provinces of British America, was to pitch upon a void space of ground, and either to purchase it at the rate of 20*l.* for 1000 acres, and one shilling quit-rent for every 100 acres; or otherwise, to pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors, without purchase-money: the former method is the most common, and the tenor a freehold. The people of Carolina live in the same easy, plentiful, and luxurious manner with the Virginians already described. Poverty is here almost an entire stranger; and the planters are the most hospitable people that are to be met with to all strangers, and especially to such as by accident or misfortunes are rendered incapable to provide for themselves.

The only town in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charles-Town, the metropolis, in South-Carolina, which for size, beauty, and trade, may be considered as one of the first in British America. I have already mentioned its admirable situation at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ships 20 miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near 40. The harbour is good in every respect, but that of a bar, which hinders vessels of more

than 200 tons burden from entering. The town is regularly and pretty strongly fortified by nature and art; the streets are well cut; the houses are large and well built, some of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handsome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The streets are wide and straight, intersecting each other at right angles; those running east and west extend about a mile from one river to the other. It contains about 1000 houses, and is the seat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the assembly. Its neighbourhood is beautiful beyond description. Several handsome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred; the people are shewey and expensive in their dress and way of living; so that every thing conspires to make this by much the liveliest, the loveliest, and politest place, as it is one of the richest too, in all America. It ought also to be observed, for the honour of the people of Carolina, that, when in common with the other colonies, they resolved against the use of certain luxuries, and even necessaries of life; those articles which improve the mind, enlarge the understanding, and correct the taste, were excepted: the importation of books was permitted as formerly.

As South-Carolina has met with infinitely more attention than the other provinces, the commerce of this country alone employs 140 ships, while that of the other two does not employ 60. Its exports to Great-Britain of native commodities, on an average of three years, amount to more than 395,000 l. annual value; and its imports at 365,000 l. The exports of North-Carolina are computed at more than 68,000 l. and its imports at about 18,000 l. The trade of Georgia is likewise in its infancy; the exports amount to a little more than 74,000 l. and the imports at 49,000 l.

The trade between Carolina and the West-Indies is the same in all respects with that of the rest of the colonies, and is very large; their trade with the Indians is likewise in a very flourishing condition; and they carry English goods on pack-horses 5 or 600 miles into the country west of Charles-Town.

The mouths of the rivers in North-Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, vessels of above 70 or 80 tuns. This lays a weight upon their trade, by the expence of lighterage. Edenton was formerly the capital of North-Carolina, which is no more than a trifling village; but they are now projecting a town farther south, which is more eeccentrical.

Georgia has two towns already known in trade. Savannah, the capital, is commodiously situated for an inland and foreign trade,

trade, about ten miles from the sea, upon a noble river of the same name, which is navigable for 200 miles farther for large boats, to the second town, called Augusta, which stands in a country of the greatest fertility, and carries on a considerable trade with the Indians. From the town of Savannah you see the whole course of the river towards the sea; and on the other hand, you see the river for about 60 miles up into the country. Here the Rev. Mr. George Whitefield (who used to cross the Atlantic every other year) founded an orphan-house, which is now converted into a college for the education of young men designed chiefly for the ministry; and through his zeal and pious care, this favourite seminary is at present in a thriving condition.

EAST and WEST FLORIDA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---------|--------|-----------|-----------------------------|
| Length | 500 | } between | } 80 and 91 west longitude. |
| Breadth | 440 | | |

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country, which was ceded by Spain to Great-Britain by the late treaty of peace, and includes a part of Louisiana, is now divided into the governments of East and West Florida. See the Royal Proclamation.

RIVERS.] These are the Mississippi, which forms the western boundary of Florida, and is one of the finest in the world, as well as the largest; for including its turnings and windings, it is supposed to run a course of 4500 miles; but its mouths are in a manner choaked up with sands and shoals, which deny access to vessels of any considerable burden; there being, according to Mitchel's map, only twelve feet water over the bar (captain Pittman says seventeen) at the principal entrance. Within the bar there is 100 fathom water, and the channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain season, when, like the Nile, it overflows and becomes extremely rapid. It is, except at the entrance already mentioned, every where free from shoals and cataraets, and navigable for craft of one kind or other almost to its source. The Mobbille, the Apalachicola, and St. John's rivers, are also large and noble streams.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are, St. Bernard's, Ascension, Mobbille, Pensacola, Dauphin, Joseph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Sancto, and Charles Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Blanco, Samblas, Anclote, St. Augustine, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninsula, which terminates the British America southward.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] It is very difficult to reconcile the various accounts that have been given of these particulars in this country. The people who have obtained grants of lands in Florida, and are desirous to settle or sell them, represent the whole country as a Canaan, and St. Augustine, in East-Florida, as the Montpelier of America: they tell us, that the climate of Florida is an exceeding agreeable medium betwixt the scorching heat of the tropics, and the pinching cold of the northern latitudes; that there is indeed a change of the seasons, but it is a moderate one: in November and December, many trees lose their leaves, vegetation goes on slowly, and the winter is perceived, but so mild, that snow is never seen there; and the tenderest plants of the West-Indies, such as the plantain, the allegator-pear-tree, the banana, the pineapple, the sugar-cane, &c. remain unhurt during the winter, in the gardens of St. Augustine: that the fogs and dark gloomy weather, so common in England, are unknown in this country. And though at the equinoxes, especially the autumnal, the rains fall very heavy every day for some weeks together, yet, when the shower is over, the sky immediately clears up, and all is calm and serene.

Others have represented this very coast as the grave and burying-place of all strangers who are so unhappy as to go there, affirming as a truth, the well known story propagated soon after the last peace, That upon the landing of our troops to take possession of Florida, the Spaniards asked them "What crimes have you been guilty of at home?" We shall take the liberty to observe on this head, that though the air here is very warm, the heats are much allayed by cool breezes from the seas which environ and wash a considerable part of this country. The inland countries towards the north feel a little of the roughness of the north-west wind, which, more or less, diffuses its chilling breath over the whole continent of North-America, carrying frost and snow many degrees more to the southward in these regions, than the north-east wind does in Europe.

That the air of Florida is pure and wholesome, appears from the size, vigour, and longevity of the Floridan Indians, who in these respects far exceed their more southern neighbours, the Mexicans. That when the Spaniards quitted St. Augustine, many of them were of great age, some above 90. Since it came into the hands of Great-Britain, many gentlemen in a deep consumption have ascribed the recovery of their

health to that climate; and it is a certain fact, that the ninth regiment, stationed on different parts of the coast, did not lose a single man by natural death in the space of twenty months.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND } Many of the disadvantages
FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } indiscriminately imputed to
the soil of the whole country, should be confined to East-Florida, which indeed, near the sea, and 40 miles back, is flat and sandy. But even the country round St. Augustine, in all appearance the worst in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation, to a larger size, and produce better fruit, than in Spain and Portugal. The inland country towards the hills is extremely rich and fertile, producing spontaneously the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas, and is likewise favourable to the rearing of European productions. There is not, on the whole continent of America, any place better qualified by nature to afford not only all the necessaries of life, but also all the pleasures of habitation, than that part of this country which lies upon the banks of the Mississippi.

From the climate of Florida, and some specimens sent home, there is reason to expect, that cotton, sugar, wine, and silk, will grow here as well as in Persia, India, and China, which are in the same latitudes. This country also produces rice, indigo, ambergris, cochineal, amethysts, turquoises, lapis lazuli, and other precious stones; copper, quicksilver, pitch-coal, and iron ore: pearls are found in great abundance on the coast of Florida: mahogany grows on the southern parts of the peninsula, but inferior in size and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal creation are here so numerous, that you may purchase a good saddle-horse in exchange for goods of five shillings value prime cost; and there are instances of horses being exchanged for a hatchet per head.

POPULATION, COMMERCE, } Notwithstanding the luxu-
AND CHIEF TOWNS. } riancy of the soil, the salubrity of the air, the cheapness and plenty of provisions, the encouragement of the British government, (See the proclamation) and the wise measures taken by the governors sent thither to settle these provinces, the number of English inhabitants are yet very inconsiderable, and, in all appearance, the increase of population will be here extremely slow, and that proceeding from unavoidable causes.

When we consider the long and destructive wars which the mother country has supported by sea and land against the house

of Bourbon; the emigrations to our other settlements in North America, the East and West Indies; the numerous manufactures carrying on at home; and the prodigious shipping employed in transporting these to every corner of the globe; it would appear, that, instead of peopling our colonies, we wanted a supply of hands at home; and, of course, the acquisition of a new territory, without people to plant it, must be an incumbrance to the mother country, especially as the civil and military establishments of both Floridas are said to cost the government near 100,000 l. per annum.

If, for this purpose, we look to the northern colonies of America, we shall find them less able, and the people less disposed to relinquish countries which present them with all the comforts of life in vast abundance, and where they live in affluence, ease, and safety. Is any planter able to improve more ground; or, does the increase of his family and stock require 1000 acres more to his estate? the vast regions behind (for, comparatively speaking, little more than the sea coast of North America is yet cleared and inhabited by Europeans) present themselves to his view. For a penny an acre in some places, and a halfpenny in others, annually, he may traverse the forest, choose out the most enchanting situation, upon the banks of a fine navigable river, and fix upon as much ground as he can possibly cultivate. Is he ambitious to become a freeholder? for the value of a suit of clothes he may purchase 500 acres; the fertility of which, in a few years, puts him on a respectable footing with his neighbours, and sometimes gives him a seat in the council of the people.

It has been therefore hinted, that the chief advantage to be derived to Great-Britain from the possession of Florida, arises from its situation; serving as a frontier against the incursions of our enemies: that its ports, situated in the Gulph of Mexico (See the map of North America) will always be a check upon Spain, as it commands the passage between her settlements; for the galleons, and other vessels, in their passage from Vera Cruz in Mexico to the Havannah, are obliged, by reason of their north-east trade winds, to stretch away to the northward, and generally keep as near the coast of Florida as possible. And that in time of war with that nation, or her ally the French, the harbours of Florida are most commodiously situated for a place of rendezvous and refreshment to the royal navy sent to protect our own West-India islands, or attack those belonging to France and Spain.

But these advantages, great as they are, seem totally eclipsed, when we consider the situation of Florida in a commercial view; for though hitherto, while in a wild, uncultivated state,

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its productions have entered very little into the general scale of British commerce, we have still a prospect of establishing and carrying on a trade with the Spanish colonies; it being certain that a regular intercourse might be established with them, which would open a vent for the commodities of Great Britain, and yield returns for them in gold and silver, the most profitable of all kinds of commerce.

The chief town in West Florida is Pensacola, which is seated within the bay of the same name, on a sandy shore that can only be approached by small vessels. The road is, however, one of the best in all the gulph of Mexico, in which vessels may lie in safety against every kind of wind, being surrounded by land on every side. This place sends, in skins, logwood, dying stuffs, and silver in dollars, to the annual value of 63,000*l.* and receives of our manufactures, at an average of three years, to the value of 97,000*l.*

St. Augustine, the capital of East Florida, runs along the shore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular streets, crossing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with bastions, and enclosed with a ditch. It is likewise defended by a castle, which is called Fort St. John; and the whole is well furnished with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and south breakers, which form two channels, whose bars, at low tides, have eight feet water. Our exports to St. Augustine amount to little more than 7000*l.* per annum; its exports have hitherto been nothing more than the produce of some little trade carried on with the Indians.

The low state of commerce in Florida arises from this, that no European nation had, before the conclusion of the late war, made it an object of attention; but since that period, its importance becomes more known. Its climate and soil are extremely favourable for the raising of silk. Some attempts indeed have been made in Carolina and Georgia, where in one place the raising of silk is become a kind of staple commodity; but there the worms are often injured by the cold mornings, at other times they are benumbed and made sickly for want of warmth, and sometimes actually destroyed; an inconvenience which is also frequently experienced in Italy: but the more southern climate of Florida has placed this tender insect beyond the reach of such disasters; and experience will shew, that the air and climate of this country is as favourable to the silk-worm as it is to the mulberry-tree on which it feeds, and which grows here in its utmost luxuriance. The numerous vines too, which grow up spontaneously in the forests of this country, seem to invite us to cultivate the grape, and to

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prognosticate, that the produce of Florida may, with proper cultivation, gladden the heart of Britons in future ages.

We have already mentioned the difficulty of peopling this country from Great Britain or her colonies, but, with suitable encouragement from government, foreigners might be invited thither, such as Germans from the Rhine, Moselle, and other parts where they cultivate vineyards; protestants from the south of France, used to the culture of silk, olives, &c. Greeks from the Levant, who are groaning under the Turkish yoke, and are an industrious people, well skilled in the cultivation of cotton, vines, raisins, currants, olives, almonds, and silk-worms; for which the climate of Florida is so well adapted. And herein may be perceived the value of this country to Great Britain; for though from the variety of climates in the extensive empire of British America, reaching in a direct line from the frozen wilds of Labrador, where the hardy inhabitants, clothed in furs, wander amidst eternal snow, to the sultry regions within the tropics, where, seated in the heart of a luxuriant soil, the wealthy planter shelters himself from the scorching sun by the spreading umbrella; we command a much greater number of articles of commerce and the conveniencies of life than any nation on earth, yet it is to Florida that we must look for silk, wine, and some other articles, and these too of the best sorts, which hitherto we purchased, and do still purchase in immense quantities, from different powers of Europe and Asia; nor can a rich and trading nation possibly be without them, as we daily experience from the quantity of treasure sent annually to China for silk.

To what has been observed respecting the climate, soil, and produce of Florida, we shall take the liberty to give the following extracts from some letters of a gentleman who went to St. Augustine about the year 1764, in a consumptive state of health.

May 15, 1767. "I am much obliged to you for your enquiry after my health; I have agreed with Florida extremely well: indeed this country is in general very healthy, and till last autumn we had no sick here, and then our sickness was not mortal, although very much so in every other part of America. I believe my friends do not know that we are so near Charles-Town, and that we have not only a water but a land communication with that place. Sending letters by the packet is very tedious, as they must go round by the West-Indies."

April 16, 1768. "You cannot conceive how agreeable it is for people in such an exotic country as this, to receive a European letter. This country, in all probability, will make a figure

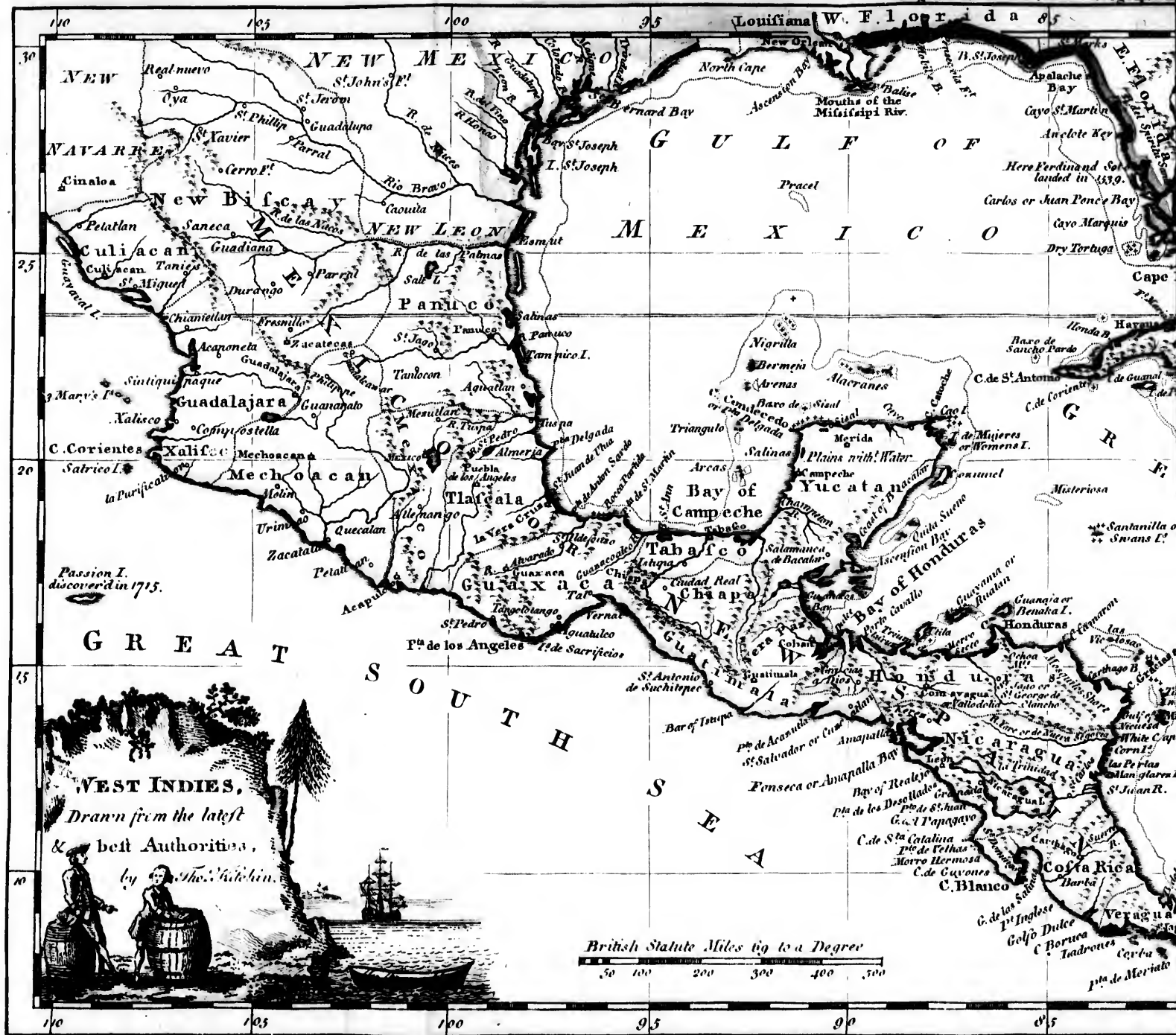
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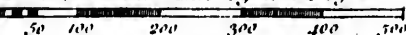
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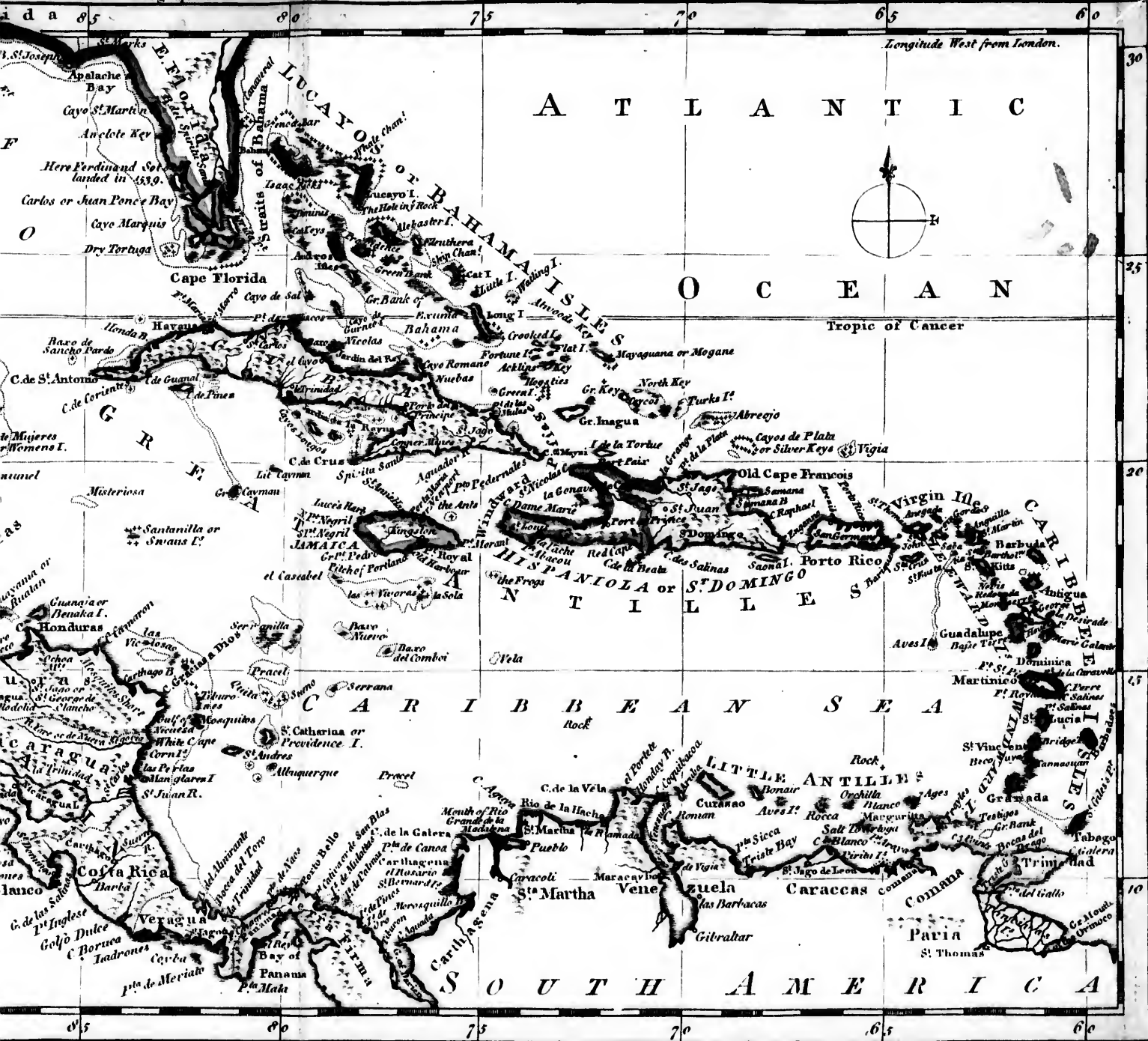
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by Tho. Kitchin.

British Statute Miles to a Degree





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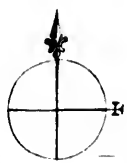
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WEST INDIES,
 Drawn from the latest
 & best Authorities,

by Tho: Hutchin.



a figure soon, as a number of gentlemen of considerable property, both from England and Scotland, have obtained orders from his majesty for grants of land in this province, and are now busy in forming plantations. Between 6 and 700 working slaves are already in the colony of East Florida."

And in a third letter, received in 1770, there is the following intelligence. "This goes by a vessel of Mr. ———, which arrived here some time ago with a cargo of slaves from the coast of Africa; she sails from this to-morrow directly for your port of London, and carries our first produce to that market, viz. between 8 and 9000 weight of indigo, some cotton, rice, and deer-skins; likewise some ship-timber, by way of trial. This province bids fair to exceed all the other American provinces in the article of indigo, as the plant stands the winter, that is shoots up from the old roots in the spring; by which means we have a full cutting more than they have to the northward. Our quantity this year is small, but the quality remarkably good. Some of our planters have vanity enough to think they are entitled to the medal given by the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. and have applied for it accordingly."

WEST INDIES.

WE have already observed, that between the two continents of America, lie an innumerable multitude of islands, which we call the West Indies, and which, such as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, as Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. As the climate and seasons of these islands differ widely from what we can form any idea of, from what we perceive at home, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them in general, as well as some other particulars that are peculiar to the West-Indies.

The climate in all our West India islands, is nearly the same, allowing for those accidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and that the sun goes quite over their heads, passing beyond them to the north, and never returning further from any of them than about 30 degrees to the south, they are continually subjected to the extreme of an heat, which would be intolerable, if the trade wind, rising gradually as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner, as to enable them to attend their concerns even under the meridian sun.

fun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows smartly from the land, as it were from its center, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once.

By the same remarkable Providence in the disposing of things, it is, that when the sun has made a great progress towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him such a vast body of clouds, as shield them from his direct beams; and dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty with the long drought, which commonly reigns from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the West Indies (and we may add in the East Indies) are by no means so moderate as with us. Our heaviest rains are but dews comparatively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuosity; the rivers rise in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a short time all the low country is under water*. Hence it is, that the rivers which have their source within the tropics, swell and overflow their banks at a certain season; and so mistaken were the antients in their idea of the torrid zone, which they imagined to be dried and scorched up, with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reason uninhabitable: when in reality, some of the largest rivers of the world have their course within its limits, and the moisture is one of the greatest inconveniences of the climate in several places.

The rains make the only distinction of seasons in the West Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no frosts, no snows, and but rarely some hail; the storms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailstones very great and heavy. Whether it be owing to this moisture, which alone does not seem to be a sufficient cause, or to a greater quantity of a sulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds, that are subject to the action of such causes, rust and canker in a very short time: and this cause, perhaps as much as the heat itself, contributes to make the climate of the West Indies unfriendly and unpleasant to an European constitution.

It is in the rainy season (principally in the month of August, more rarely in July and September) that they are assaulted by hurricanes; the most terrible calamity to which they are subject (as well as the people in the East Indies) from

* See Wafer's Journey across the Isthmus of Darien, in Vol. II. of the Collection of Voyages and Travels, advertised at the end of this book.

from the climate; this destroys, at a stroke, the labours of many years, and prostrates the most exalted hopes of the planter, and often just at the moment when he thinks himself out of the reach of fortune. It is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious swelling of the seas, and sometimes with an earthquake; in short, with every circumstance, which the elements can assemble, that is terrible and destructive. First, they see as the prelude to the ensuing havoc, whole fields of sugar canes whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country. The strongest trees of the forest are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble; their windmills are swept away in a moment; their utensils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and stills of several hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houses are no protection, the roofs are torn off at one blast; whilst the rain, which in an hour rises five feet, rushes in upon them with an irresistible violence.

The hurricane comes on either in the quarters, or at the full change of the moon. If it comes at the full moon, observe these signs. That day you will see the sky very turbulent; you will observe the sun more red than at other times; you will perceive a dead calm, and the hills clear of all those clouds and mists which usually hover about them. In the clefts of the earth, and in the wells, you hear a hollow rumbling sound, like the rushing of a great wind. At night the stars seem much larger than usual, and surrounded with a sort of hurs; the north-west sky has a black and menacing look; the sea emits a strong smell, and rises into vast waves, often without any wind; the wind itself now forsakes its usual steady easterly stream, and shifts about to the west; from whence it sometimes blows with intermissions violently and irregularly for about two hours at a time. The moon herself is surrounded with a great hur, and sometimes the sun has the same appearance. These are signs which the Indians of these islands taught our planters, by which they can prognosticate the approach of an hurricane.

The grand staple commodity of the West Indies is sugar; this commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China, in very early times, from whence we had the first knowledge of it; but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request, as one of the materials of a very universal luxury in Europe. It is not settled whether the cane, from which this substance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Brazil, by the Portuguese,

from India and the coast of Africa (see Vol. II. page 322) but, however the matter may be, in the beginning they made the most, as they still do the best sugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the sugar-cane is the most lively, elegant, and least cloying sweet in nature; and which, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses rum is distilled, and from the scummings of the sugar, a meaner spirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America (where it is consumed by the English inhabitants, or employed in the Indian trade, or distributed from thence to the fishery of Newfoundland, and the African commerce; besides what comes to Great-Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of molasses is taken off raw, and carried to New-England, to be distilled there. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle, and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fire; so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

They compute that, when things are well managed, the rum and molasses pay the charges of the plantation, and the sugars are clear gain. However, by the particulars we have seen, and by others which we may easily imagine, the expences of a plantation in the West-Indies are very great, and the profits at the first view precarious; for the chargeable articles of the wind-mill, the boiling, cooling, and distilling houses, and the buying and subsisting a suitable number of slaves and cattle, will not suffer any man to begin a sugar plantation of any consequence, not to mention the purchase of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at least 5000 l. Neither is the life of a planter, if he means to acquire a fortune, a life of idleness and luxury; at all times he must keep a watchful eye upon his overseers, and even oversee himself occasionally. But at the boiling season, if he is properly attentive to his affairs, no way of life can be more laborious, and more dangerous to the health; from a constant attendance day and night, in the extreme united heats of the climate, and so many fierce furnaces; add to this, the losses by hurricanes, earthquakes, and bad seasons; and then consider when the sugars are in the cask, that he quits the hazard of a planter, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ships his produce at his own risk. These considerations might make one believe, that it could never answer to engage in this business; but, notwithstanding all this, there are no parts of the world, in which great estates are made in so short a time, from the produce of the earth, as in the West-Indies. The produce of a few good seasons, generally provide against the ill effects of
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the worst, as the planter is sure of a speedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier sale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overseer, who has commonly a salary of 150 l. a year, with overseers under him in proportion to the greatness of the plantation, one to about thirty negroes, and at the rate of about 40 l. Such plantations too have a surgeon at a fixed salary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the course which is the least troublesome to the owner of the estate is, to let the land, with all the works, and the stock of cattle and slaves, to a tenant, who gives security for the payment of the rent, and the keeping up repairs and stock. The estate is generally estimated to such a tenant at half the neat produce of the best years; such tenants, if industrious and frugal men, soon make good estates for themselves.

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it: some are subsisted in this manner, but others find their negroes with a certain portion of Guinea or Indian corn, and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork a day. All the rest of the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches, stockings and shoes; the whole not exceeding 40 s. a year, and the profit of their labour yields 10 or 12 l. The price of men negroes upon their first arrival is from 30 to 36 l. women and grown boys about 50 s. less; but such negro families as are acquainted with the business of the islands generally bring above 40 l. upon an average one with another, and there are instances of a single negro man expert in business bringing 150 guineas, and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

To particularize the commodities proper for the West-India market, would be to enumerate all the necessaries, conveniences, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, spices, and the commodities I have already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they sell, but from the numerous shipping constantly arriving from Europe, and a continual succession of new adventurers, each of whom carrying out more or less as a venture, the West India market is frequently overstocked; money must be raised, and goods are sometimes sold at prime cost or under. But those who can afford to store their goods, and wait for a better market,

market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftsmen, especially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the West Indies, that physicians and surgeons even outdo the planter and merchant, in accumulating riches.

Before the late war, there were allowed to be in our West Indies at least 230,000 negro slaves; and, upon the highest calculation, the whites there in all did not amount to 90,000 souls. This disproportion between the freemen and negroes, which grows more visible every day, some writers have endeavoured to account for, by alledging, that the enterprizing spirit, which the novelty of the object, and various concurrent causes, had produced in the last century, has decayed very much. That the disposition of the West Indians themselves, who for cheapness choose to do every thing by negroes, which can possibly be done by them, contributes greatly to the small number of whites of the lower stations. Such indeed is the powerful influence of avarice, that though the whites are kept in constant terror of insurrections and plots, many families employ 25 or 30 negroes as menial servants, who are infinitely the most dangerous of the slaves, and in case of any insurrection, they have it more in their power to strike a sudden and fatal blow.

The first observation we think is not well founded; that enterprizing spirit which first led Britons out to discovery, and colonization, still animates in a very considerable degree, the people of this nation, but the field is now more ample and enlarged; emigrants have greater scope whereon to range; the British empire extends with incredible strides. Besides the vast continent of North America, which takes in such a variety of climates; discovers such richness of soil; where the people live under various modes of religion, laws and government, and all admirably suited to British tempers; the East Indies, an inexhaustible mine of riches, begins to draw the attention of mankind from that of the West. Countries, as well as individuals, attain a name and reputation for something extraordinary, and have their day. Thither many of the best families of this nation, are ambitious of procuring places for their sons in the army, or the counting-house. Here is an ample field for all adventurous spirits, who, disdain an idle life at home, and ambitious of becoming useful to themselves, their connections, or the community, boldly venture into the immense regions of this eastern world. Others, full as remote from an indolent disposition, but with less conduct and inferior abilities, set out with the most sanguine.

fanguine hopes. These are your fiery, restless tempers, willing to undertake the severest labour, provided it promises but a short continuance, who love risk and hazard, whose schemes are always vast, and who put no medium between being great and being undone.

THE islands of the West Indies lie in the form of a bow, or semicircle, stretching almost from the coast of Florida north, to the river Oronoque, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the first inhabitants; though this is a term that most geographers confine to the Leeward Islands. Sailors distinguish them into Windward and Leeward Islands, with regard to the usual courses of ships, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena, or New Spain and Portobello. The geographical tables and maps, distinguish them into the great and little Antilles.

JAMAICA.] The first that we come to belonging to Great Britain, and also the most important, after leaving Florida, is Jamaica, which lies between the 75th and 79th degrees of west longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 north latitude. From the east and west it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in the breadth, growing less towards each end, in the form of an egg. It lies near 4500 miles south-west of England.

This island is intersected with a ridge of steep rocks tumbled by the frequent earthquakes in a stupendous manner upon one another. These rocks, though containing no soil on their surface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flourishing in a perpetual spring; they are nourished by the rains, which often fall, or the mists which continually brood on the mountains, and which, their roots penetrating the crannies of the rocks, industriously seek out for their own support. From the rocks issue a vast number of small rivers of pure wholesome water which tumble down in cataracts, and together with the stupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a most delightful landscape. On each side of this great chain of mountains, are ridges of lower ones, which diminish as they remove from it. On these coffee grows in great plenty. The vallies or plains between these ridges, are level beyond what is ordinary in most other countries, and the soil is prodigiously fertile.

The longest day in summer is about thirteen hours, and the shortest in winter about eleven; but the most usual divisions of the seasons in the West Indies, are into the dry and wet seasons.

The air of this island is, in most places, excessive hot and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cool sea breezes, which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable: and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is very terrible, and roars with astonishing loudness, and the lightning in these violent storms, frequently does great damage. In February or March, they expect earthquakes, of which we shall speak hereafter. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight together. In the plains are found several salt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spanish Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most terrible endemic distempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the greatest and most valuable production of this island. Cocos were formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces also ginger, and the piemento, or as it is called Jamaica Pepper; the wild cinnamon tree, whose bark is so useful in medicine; the manchineel, whose fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worst poisons in nature; the mohogany, in such use with our cabinet-makers, and of the most valuable quality, but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear. Excellent cedars of a large size and durable; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardness of its wood, which when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma, affording oil, much esteemed by the savages, both in food and medicine; the soap-tree, whose berries answer all purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive bark, useful to tanners; the fustic and redwood to the dyers; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton-tree is still so. No sort of European grain grow here; they have only maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, but none of them resembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruit, as has been already observed, grow in great plenty; citrons, seville and china oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, mamees, fourfops, papas, pine-apples, cuttard apples, star apples, prickly pears, allieada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and several kinds of berries, also garden stuffs in great plenty and good. The cattle bred on this island are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have great plenty of hogs, many plantations have hundreds of them, and their flesh is exceeding sweet and delicate. Their horses are

small, mettlesome and hardy; and when well made generally sell for 30 or 40 l. sterling. Jamaica likewise supplies the apothecary with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, China, cassia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and sea turtle, and the alligator. Here are all sorts of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other islands; besides parrots, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea hens, geese, ducks and turkeys; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fish. The mountains breed numberless adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and gallewasps; but these last are not venomous. Among the insects are the ciror, or chegue, which eats into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and the white people are sometimes plagued with them. These insects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as the person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or the point of a penknife, taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They sometimes get into the toes, and eat the flesh to the very bone.

This island was originally a part of the Spanish empire in America. Several descents had been made upon it by the English, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year, that Jamaica was reduced under our dominion. Cromwell had fitted out a squadron, under Pen and Venables, to reduce the Spanish island of Hispaniola, but there this squadron was unsuccessful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a descent on Jamaica, and having carried the capital St. Jago, soon compelled the whole island to surrender. Ever since it has been subject to the English, and the government of it is one of the richest places, next to that of Ireland, in the disposal of the crown, the standing salary being 2,500 l. per annum, and the assembly commonly voting the governor as much more, which, with the other perquisites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000 l. per annum.

We have already observed, that the government of all the American islands is the same, namely, that kind, which we have formerly described under the name of a royal government. Their religion too is universally of the church of England; tho' they have no bishop, the bishop of London's commissary being the chief religious magistrate in those parts.

About the beginning of this century, it was computed, that the numbers of whites in Jamaica amounted to 60,000, and

that of the negroes to 120,000. It appears at present that Jamaica is rather on the decline, as is the number of inhabitants, the whites not exceeding 25,000, and the blacks 90,000. Besides these, a number of fugitive negroes have formed a sort of colony among the blue mountains, independent of the whites, with whom they make treaties, and are in some respects useful to the inhabitants of the island, particularly in sending back run-a-way slaves.

Indigo was once very greatly cultivated in Jamaica, and it enriched the island to so great a degree, that in the parish of Vere, where this drug was chiefly cultivated, they are said to have had no less than 300 gentlemen's coaches; a number I do not imagine even the whole island exceeds at this day; and there is great reason to believe, that there were many more persons of property in Jamaica formerly than are now, though perhaps they had not those vast fortunes, which dazzle us in such a manner at present. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, and by terrible epidemical diseases, which, treading on the heels of the former calamities, swept away vast multitudes. The decrease of inhabitants, as well as the decline of their commerce, arises from the difficulties to which their trade is exposed, of which they do not fail to complain to the court of Great Britain: as that they are of late deprived of the most beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spanish coast; the low value of their produce, which they ascribe to the great improvements the French make in their sugar colonies, which are enabled to undersell them by the lowness of their duties, the trade carried on from Ireland, and the northern colonies, to the French and Dutch islands, where they pay no duties, and are supplied with goods at an easier rate. Some of these complaints, which equally affect the other islands, have been heard, others still remain undressed. Both the logwood trade, and this contraband have been the subjects of much contention, and the cause of a war between Great Britain, and the Spanish nation. The former we always avowed, and claimed as our right; and was at the last peace confirmed to us. The latter we permitted; because we thought, and very justly, that if the Spaniards found themselves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lay upon them, and not upon us, to put a stop to it, by their guarda costas, which cruize in these seas, purposely to seize and confiscate such vessels and cargoes, as are found in this trade. In this manner did the British court argue, till of late, when the politics of this nation, in compliance with the court of Spain, thought proper to send English cruizers, to the American coast,

coast, effectually to crush that lucrative trade, of which the whole body of British subjects in America have complained, as it put a stop to the principal channel which hitherto enabled them to remit so largely to Great Britain.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It stood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the sea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable to contain a thousand sail of large ships, and of such depth as to allow them to load and unload at the greatest ease, weighed so much with the inhabitants, that they chose to build their capital on this spot, though the place was a hot dry sand, and produced none of the necessaries of life, not even fresh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the resort of pirates, made it a place of great consideration. These pirates were called *Buccaneers*, they fought with an inconsiderate bravery, and then spent their fortune in this capital with as inconsiderate dissipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its size, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which shook the whole island to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, as to leave, in one quarter, not even the smallest vestige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and swallowed up nine-tenths of the houses, and two thousand people. The water gushed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but some of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houses, and were afterwards saved by boats. Several ships were cast away in the harbour; and the *Swan* frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of sinking houses, and did not overset, but afforded a retreat to some hundreds of people, who saved their lives upon her. An officer, who was in the town at this time, says, the earth opened and shut very quick in some places, and he saw several people sink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads just above ground, and were squeezed to death. At *Savannah*, above a thousand acres were sunk, with the houses and people in them; the place appearing for some time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houses were seen. In some parts, mountains were split; and at one place a plantation was removed to the distance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city, but it was a second time, ten years after, destroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour, tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1722, was it laid in rubbish by a hurricane, the most terrible on record,

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Such repeated calamities seemed to mark out this place as a devoted spot; the inhabitants therefore resolved to forsake it for ever, and to reside at the opposite bay, where they built Kingston, which is lately become the capital of the island. It consists of upwards of one thousand houses, many of them handsomely built, and in the taste of these islands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one story high, with porticos, and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingston, stands St. Jago de la Vega, a Spanish town, which, though at present inferior to Kingston, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is still the seat of government, and the place where the courts of justice are held.

The whole product of the island may be reduced to these heads. First, sugars, of which they exported in 1753, twenty thousand three hundred and fifteen hogheads, some vastly great, even to a tun weight, which cannot be worth less in England than 424,725*l*. Most of this goes to London, Bristol, and Glasgow, and some part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheese, corn, peas, flaves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from thence. Second, rum, of which they export about four thousand puncheons. The rum of this island is generally esteemed the best, and is the most used in Great Britain. Third, molasses, in which they make a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vast distilleries. All these are the produce of the grand staple the sugar cane. Fourth, cotton, of which they send out two thousand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconsiderable, but some cocoa and coffee are exported, with a considerable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, sweetmeats, mahogany, and manchineel planks. But some of the most considerable articles of their trade are with the Spanish continent of New Spain and Terra Firma, for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they did drive a vast and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of European goods. And even in time of war with Spain, this trade between Jamaica and the Spanish Main goes on, which it will be impossible for Spain to stop, whilst it is so profitable to the British merchant, and whilst the Spanish officers, from the highest to the lowest, shew so great a respect to presents properly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, whilst they appear to live in such a state of luxury, as in most other places leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes in a manner instantly. Their equipages, their cloaths, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greatest wealth and profusion imaginable. This obliges all the treasure they receive,

receive, to make but a very short stay, being hardly more than sufficient to answer the calls of their necessity and luxury on Europe and North America.

On Sundays, or court time, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in coats of silk, and vests trimmed with silver. At other times they generally wear only thread stockings, linen drawers, a vest, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men servants wear a coarse linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowsers of the same, and a check shirt. The negroes, except those who attend gentlemen, who have them dressed in their own livery, have once a year Osanburghs, and a blanket for cloathing, with a cap or handkerchief for the head. The morning habit of the ladies is a loose night-gown, carelessly wrapped about them: before dinner they put off their dishabille, and appear with a good grace in all the advantage of a rich and becoming dress.

The common drink of persons in affluent circumstances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter sells for a shilling per bottle. But the general drink, especially among those of inferior rank, is rum punch, which they call Kill-Devil, because, being frequently drank to excess, it heats the blood, brings on fevers, which in a few hours send them to the grave, especially those who are just come to the island, which is the reason that so many die here upon their first arrival.

English money is seldom seen here, the current coin being entirely Spanish. There is no place where silver is so plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. You cannot dine for less than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week; though in the markets beef, pork, fowl and fish, may be bought as cheap as in London; but mutton sells at nine-pence per pound.

Learning is here at a very low ebb: there are indeed some gentlemen well versed in literature, and who send their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade or riotous dissipation.

The misery and hardships of the negroes is truly moving; and though great care is taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive so shortens their lives, that instead of increasing by the course of nature, many thousands are annually imported to the West-Indies, to supply the place of those who pine and die by the hardships they receive. They are indeed stubborn and untractable for the most part, and they must be ruled with a rod of iron, but they ought not to

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be crushed with it, or to be thought a sort of beasts, without souls, as some of their masters or overseers do at present, tho' some of these tyrants are themselves the dregs of this nation, and the refuse of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their situations easy and comfortable; and it has been observed, that in North-America, where in general these poor wretches are better used, there is a less waste of negroes, they live longer, and propagate better. And it seems clear, from the whole course of history, that those nations which have behaved with the greatest humanity to their slaves, were always best served, and ran the least hazard from their rebellions. The slaves, on their first arrival from the coast of Guinea, are exposed naked to sale; they are then generally very simple and innocent creatures, but they soon become roguish enough; and when they come to be whipped, excuse their faults by the example of the whites. They believe every negro returns to his native country after death. This thought is so agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burden of life easy, which would otherwise to many of them be quite intolerable. They look on death as a blessing, and it is surprising to see with what courage and intrepidity some of them meet it; they are quite transported to think their slavery is near an end, that they shall revisit their native shores, and see their old friends and acquaintance. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow slaves kiss him, and wish him a good journey, and send their hearty good wishes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy enter his body, believing he is gone home and happy.

BARBADOES.] This island, the most easterly of all the Caribbees, is situated in 59 deg. W. lon. and 13 deg. N. lat. It is 21 miles in length, and in breadth 14. When the English, some time after the year 1625, first landed here, they found it the most savage and destitute place they had hitherto visited. It had not the least appearance of ever having been peopled even by savages. There was no kind of beasts of pasture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root, fit for supporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was so good, and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortunes in England, resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large, and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable support; and

and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the soil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, answered tolerably. These prospects, together with the storm between the king and parliament, which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to transport themselves into this island. And what is extremely remarkable, so great was the increase of people in Barbadoes, 25 years after its first settlement, that in 1650, it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian slaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they seized upon all those unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring islands, and carried them into slavery. A practice, which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcilable to us ever since. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate sugar, which soon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of the slaves therefore was still augmented; and in 1676, it is supposed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000, make 150,000 on this small spot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world most renowned for numbers. At this time Barbadoes employ'd 400 sail of ships, one with another of 150 tuns, in their trade. Their annual exports in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, was above 350,000*l.* and their circulating cash at home was 200,000*l.* Such was the increase of population, trade, and wealth, in the course of 50 years. But since that time, this island has been much on the decline, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French sugar colonies, and partly to our own establishments in the neighbouring isles. Their numbers at present are said to be 20,000 whites, and 100,000 slaves. Their commerce consists in the same articles as formerly, though they deal in them to less extent. Their capital is Bridgetown, where the governor resides, whose employment is said to be worth 5000*l.* per annum. They have a college founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this island. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has suffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.] This island, commonly called by the sailors, St. Kitt's, is situated in 62 deg. W. lon. and 17 deg. N. lat. about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is 20 miles long, and seven broad. It has its name from the famous Christopher Columbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards. This nation, however, abandoned it as unworthy of their attention; and in 1626, it was settled by the French and English

English conjunctly; but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. Besides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces near as much sugar as Barbadoes, and sometimes quite as much. It is computed that this island contains 6000 whites, and 36,000 negroes.

ANTIGUA.] Situated in 61 deg. W. lon. and 17 deg. N. lat. is of a circular form, near 20 miles over every way. This island, which was formerly thought useless, has now got the start of the rest. It has one of the best harbours in the West-Indies, and its capital St. John's, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary seat of the governor of the Leeward islands. Antigua is supposed to contain about 7000 whites, and 30,000 slaves.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.] Two small islands, lying between St. Christopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles in circumference, and are said each to contain 5000 whites and 10,000 slaves. The soil in these four islands is pretty much alike, light and sandy, but notwithstanding fertile in an high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the sugar cane.

BARBUDA.] Situated in 18 deg. N. lat. 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has a good road for shipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in husbandry, and raising fresh provisions for the use of the neighbouring isles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

ANGUILLA.] Situated in 18 deg. N. lat. 60 miles north-west of St. Christopher's, is about 30 miles long, and 10 broad. This island is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themselves to husbandry, and feeding of cattle.

DOMINICA.] Situated in 15 deg. N. lat. and in 61 deg. 24 min. W. lon. lies about half way between Guadalupe and Martinico. It is near 28 miles in length, and 13 in breadth. It got its name from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The French have always opposed our settling here, because it must cut off their communication, in time of war, between Martinico and Guadalupe. By the last treaty of peace, however, it was ceded in express terms to the English; but we have derived little advantage from this conquest, the island being at present no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Caribbees, who being expelled their

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their own settlements, have taken refuge here. The soil of this island is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of cotton and coffee than sugar; but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West-Indies, and the island is well supplied with rivulets of fine water.

ST. VINCENT.] Seated 13 deg. 30 min. north lat. and in 61 deg. west lon. 50 miles north-west of Barbadoes, 30 miles south of St. Lucia, is about 24 miles in length, and 18 in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a strong loam, the most proper for the raising of sugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is less cultivated than formerly throughout the West-Indies. It is at present chiefly inhabited by the Caribbeans, and many fugitives from Barbadoes and the other islands, who are now numerous, and have many villages where they are said to live well.

GRANADA AND THE GRENADINES.] Granada is situated in 12 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. 40 min. west lon. about 30 leagues south-west of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of New-Andalusia, or the Spanish Main. This island is said to be 30 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. Experience has proved that the soil of this island is extremely proper for producing sugar, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming a flourishing colony as any in the West Indies, of its dimensions. A lake on the top of a hill in the middle of the island supplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, some of which might be fortified to great advantage, which renders it very convenient for shipping; and it has the happiness of not being subject to hurricanes. Its chief port, called Lewis, has a sandy bottom, and is so capacious and safe, that 1000 vessels from 3 to 400 tun may ride secure from storms; and 100 ships of the greatest burden may be moored in its harbour. This island was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which these handful of Caribbees defended themselves with the most resolute bravery. In the last war, when Granada was attacked by the English, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were so amazed at the reduction of Guadalupe and Martinico, that they lost all spirit, and surrendered without making the least opposition; and the full property of this island, together with the small islands on the north, called the Grenadines, which yield the same produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of peace.

TOBAGO.] The most southerly of all the British islands or settlements in America (except Falkland Islands, in the South-Seas) is situated 11 deg. odd min. north lat. 120 miles south of Barbadoes, and about the same distance from the Spanish Main. This island is about 32 miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not so hot as might be expected so near the equator; and it is said that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes that have sometimes proved so fatal to the other West-India islands. It has a fruitful soil, capable of producing sugar, and indeed every thing else that is raised in the West Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal, all valuable commodities, and which will undoubtedly render this island of vast importance and immense benefit to Great Britain. It is well watered with numerous springs; and its bays and creeks are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kind of shipping. The value and importance of this island appears from the expensive and formidable armaments sent thither by European powers in support of their different claims. It seems to have been chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who defended their pretensions against both England and France with the most obstinate perseverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain.

These three last mentioned islands were since the war erected into one government.

NEWFOUNDLAND.] Exclusive of the West-India sugar islands lying between the two continents of America, Great Britain claims some others, that are seated at the distance of some thousand miles from each other, upon the coast of this quarter of the globe, of which we shall speak according to our method, beginning with the north.

Newfoundland is situated to the east of the Gulph of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 deg. north lat. and between 53 and 59 deg. west lon. separated from Labrador or New-Britain by the Straits of Belleisle, and from Canada by the Bay of St. Lawrence, being 350 miles long, and 200 broad. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet, the sky being usually overcast. From the soil of this island we are far from reaping any sudden or great advantage, for the cold is long continued and severe; and the summer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the soil, at least in those parts of the island with which we are acquainted, is rocky and

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barren. However, it is watered by several good rivers, and hath many large and good harbours. This island, whenever the continent shall come to fail of timber convenient to navigation (which on the sea coast perhaps is no very remote prospect) will afford a large supply for masts, yards, and all sorts of lumber for the West-India trade. But what at present it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fishery of cod, carried on upon those shoals which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great-Britain and North-America, at the lowest computation, annually employ 3000 sail of small craft in this fishery; on board of which, and on shore to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of 10,000 hands; so that this fishery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a source of livelihood to so many thousands of poor people, and a most excellent nursery to the royal navy. This fishery is computed to encrease the national stock 300,000 l. a year in gold and silver, remitted to us for the cod we sell in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod, both on the great bank, and the lesser ones, which lie to the east and south-east of this island, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but several other species of fish, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, New-Scotland, New-England, and the isle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts; from which we may observe, that where our colonies are thinly peopled, or so barren as not to produce any thing from their soil, their coasts make us ample amends, and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, and no way inferior to that arising from the most fertile soil.

This island, after various disputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern shores of the island; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, but with this limitation, that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England. The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated to the southward of Newfoundland, were also ceded to the French, who stipulated to erect no fortifications on these islands, nor to keep more than 50 soldiers to enforce the police. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonavista, and St. John; but there do not above 1000 families remain here in the winter.

CAPE BRETON.] This island, seated between Newfoundland and Nova-Scotia, is in length about 110 miles. The soil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louisburgh, which is near four leagues in circumference,

and has every where six or seven fathoms water. Since the conquest of this island by Great Britain in the late war, France has not one sea port for the relief and shelter of her trading ships, either to or from the West-Indies, open to them any where in America, to the northward of the river Mississippi; and consequently their whole trade in the fishery must for the future be exposed to the English privateers from the northern colonies in the time of war; a circumstance which may have some weight with that nation, in rendering them less forward to commence hostilities with Great-Britain.

ST. JOHN'S.] Situated in the gulph of St. Lawrence, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 or 40 broad, has many fine rivers, and though lying near Cape-Breton and New-Scotland, has greatly the advantage of both in pleasantness and fertility of soil. Upon the reduction of Cape-Breton, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to 4000, submitted quietly to the British arms; and to the disgrace of the French governor, there were found in his house several English scalps, which were brought there to market by the savages of New-Scotland; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This island was so well improved by the French, that it was stiled the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork.

BERMUDAS OR SUMMER ISLANDS.] These received their first name from their being discovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called the Summer Islands, from Sir George Sommers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. They are situated, at a vast distance from any continent, in 32 deg. north lat. and in 65 deg. west lon. Their distance from the Land's end is computed near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200, and from Carolina 300. The Bermudas are but small, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of access, being, as Waller the poet, who resided some time there, expresses it, walled with rocks. The air of these islands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always esteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richness of the vegetable productions is perfectly delightful. Though the soil of these islands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vines, the chief and only business of the inhabitants, who consist of about 10,000, is the building and navigating of light sloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the West Indies. These vessels are as remarkable for their swiftness, as the cedar of which they are built is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is seated at the bottom of a haven in the island of the same name, and is defended with seven or eight forts and seventy pieces of cannon. It contains above 1000 houses, a handsome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAY'S, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.] The Bahamas are situated to the south of Carolina, between 22 and 27 deg. north lat. and 73 and 81 deg. west lon. They extend along the coast of Florida quite down to the Isle of Cuba; and are said to be 500 in number, some of them only mere rocks; but 12 of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the soil of Carolina: all are, however, absolutely uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles east of the Floridas, though some others are larger and more fertile, on which the English have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the Gulph of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spanish galleons sail in their passage to Europe. These islands were the first fruits of Columbus's discoveries; but they were not known to the English till 1667, when captain Scyle, being driven among them in his passage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a second time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The English, observing the advantageous situation of these islands for being a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to settle them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky accidents prevented this settlement from being of any advantage, and the Isle of Providence became an harbour for the Buccaneers or pirates, who for a long time infested the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to send out captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet to dislodge the pirates, and for making a settlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independant company was stationed in the island. Ever since this last settlement these islands have been improving, tho' they advance but slowly. In time of war, people gain considerably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and shelves.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.] Leaving the Bahama and West-India islands, we shall now proceed along the south-east coast of America, as far as the 52d deg. of south lat. where the reader, by looking into the map, will perceive the Falkland islands, situated near the Streights of Magellan, at the utmost extremity of South-America. It has been generally believed, that the richest gold mines in Chili are carefully concealed by the Indians, as well knowing that the discovery of them would only excite in the Spaniards a greater thirst for conquest and tyranny, and would render their own independ-

dence more precarious. King Charles II. of England considered the discovery of this coast of such consequence, that Sir John Narborough was purposely fitted out to survey the Streights of Magellan, the neighbouring coast of Patagonia, and the Spanish ports in that frontier; with directions, if possible, to procure some intercourse with the Chilian Indians, who are generally at war, or at least on ill terms with the Spaniards; and to establish a commerce and a lasting correspondence with them. Though Sir John, through accidental causes, failed in this attempt, which, in appearance, promised so many advantages to this nation, his transactions upon that coast, besides the many valuable improvements he furnished to geography and navigation, are rather an encouragement for further trials of this kind, than any objection against them. It appeared by the precautions and fears of the Spaniards, that they were fully convinced of the practicability of the scheme he was sent to execute, and extremely alarmed with the apprehension of its consequences. It is said, that his majesty king Charles II. was so far prepossessed with the belief of the emoluments which might redound to the public from this expedition, and was so eager to be informed of the event of it, that, having intelligence of Sir John Narborough's passing through the Downs, on his return, he had not patience to attend his arrival at court, but went himself in his barge to Gravefend to meet him.

“As therefore it appears (says the author of Anson's Voyage) that all our future expeditions to the South-Seas must run a considerable risk of proving abortive, whilst in our passage thither we are under the necessity of touching at the Portuguese settlement of Brazil (where we may certainly depend on having our strength, condition, and designs betrayed to the Spaniards) the discovery of some place more to the southward, where ships might refresh, and supply themselves with the necessary sea-stock for their voyage round Cape Horn, would be an expedient that would relieve us from these embarrassments, and would surely be a matter worthy the attention of the public. Nor does this seem difficult to be effected; for we have already the imperfect knowledge of two places, which might, perhaps, on examination, prove extremely convenient for this purpose; one of them is Pepy's Island, in the latitude of 47, south, and laid down by Dr. Halley about 80 leagues to the eastward of Cape Blanco, on the coast of Patagonia; the other is *Falkland's Isles*, in the latitude of 51 and a half, lying nearly south of Pepy's Island. The last of these have been seen by many ships, both French and English. Woodes Rogers, who run along the north-east coast of these isles in the year 1708, tells us that they extended
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about two degrees in length, and appeared with gentle descents from hill to hill, and seemed to be good ground, interspersed with woods, and not destitute of harbours. Either of these places, as they are islands at a considerable distance from the continent, may be supposed, from their latitude, to lie in a climate sufficiently temperate. This, even in time of peace, might be of great consequence to this nation; and in time of war, would make us masters of those seas."

Falkland islands were first discovered by Sir Richard Hawkins in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of Queen Elizabeth. The present English name Falkland, was probably given them by Captain Strong, in 1689, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps.

In the year 1764, the late Lord Egmont, then first Lord of the Admiralty, revived the scheme of a settlement in the South-Seas, and Commodore Byron was sent to take possession of Falkland islands in the name of his Britannic Majesty, and in his journal represents them as a valuable acquisition. On the other hand, they are represented by Capt. M^r Bride, who in 1766 succeeded that gentleman, as the outcasts of nature. "We found, says he, a mass of islands and broken lands, of which the soil was nothing but a bog, with no better prospect than that of barren mountains, beaten by storms almost perpetual. Yet this is summer, and if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, those who lie but two cables length from the shore, must pass weeks without any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir-tree, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered away; but goats, sheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increase as in other places. Geese, of a fishy taste, snipes, foxes, sea-lions, penquins, plenty of good water, and in the summer months, wild salary, and forel, are the natural luxuries of these islands.

But though the soil be barren, and the seas tempestuous, we have happily succeeded in the grand object of a settlement here, by the discovery of a fine harbour, capable of containing the whole royal navy of England, and secured from the fury of the winds by surrounding mountains.

By our having the possession of one good harbour here, and keeping the royal navy on a respectable footing, we shall have nothing to fear from all the united force of France, Spain, and Portugal. Whoever turns his eye to the map of America, and observes the number of our settlements, and their situation in respect to the possessions of those powers, will see the impossibility of their trade escaping the vigilance of our cruisers,

pouring out from every corner of this new world. Add to this, that having hitherto attempted their colonies with success, what may we not expect in a future war, from such additional strength, so many convenient harbours to refit, or to supply our fleets and armies.

P R O C L A M A T I O N ,

For regulating the Cessions made to us in America by the last Treaty of Peace.

G E O R G E R .

WHEREAS we have taken into our royal consideration the extensive and valuable acquisitions in America, secured to our crown by the late definitive treaty of peace, concluded at Paris the 10th day of February last; and being desirous that all our loving subjects, as well of our kingdoms as of our colonies in America, may avail themselves, with all convenient speed, of the great benefits and advantages, which must accrue therefrom to their commerce, manufactures, and navigation; we have thought fit, with the advice of our privy-council, to issue this our royal proclamation, hereby to publish and declare to all our loving subjects, that we have, with the advice of our said privy-council, granted our letters patent, under our great seal of Great-Britain, to erect within the countries and islands, ceded and confirmed to us by the said treaty, four distinct and separate governments, sited and called by the names of Quebec, East-Florida, West-Florida, and Grenada, and limited and bounded as follows, viz.

First, The government of Quebec, bounded on the Labrador coast by the river St. John, and from thence by a line drawn from the head of that river through the lake St. John to the south end of the lake Nipissim; from whence the said line, crossing the river St. Lawrence and the lake Champlain in 45 degrees of north latitude, passes along the high lands which divide the rivers that empty themselves into the said river St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the sea; and also along the north coast of the Bay des Chaleurs, and the coast of the Gulph of St. Lawrence to Cape Rosieres, and from thence crossing the mouth of the river St. Lawrence by the west end of the island Anticosti, terminates at the aforesaid river of St. John.

Secondly, The government of East-Florida, bounded to the westward, by the Gulph of Mexico and the Apalachicola river;

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river; to the northward, by a line drawn from that part of the said river, where the Chatahouchee and Flint rivers meet, to the source of St. Mary's river; and by the source of the said river to the Atlantic ocean; and to the eastward and southward, by the Atlantic ocean, and the Gulph of Florida, including all islands within six leagues of the sea-coast.

Thirdly, The government of West-Florida, bounded to the southward by the coast of Mexico, including all islands within six leagues of the coast from the river Apalachicola to Lake Pontchartrain; to the westward, by the same lake, the lake Maurepas, and the river Mississippi; to the northward, by a line drawn due east from that part of the river Mississippi which lies in 31 degrees north latitude, to the river Apalachicola or Chatahouchee; and to the eastward by the said river.

Fourthly, The government of Grenada, comprehending the island of that name, together with the Grenadines, and the islands of Dominico, St. Vincent, and Tobago.

And to the end that the open and free fishery of our subjects may be extended to, and carried on upon the coast of Labrador, and the adjacent islands, we have thought fit, with the advice of our said privy-council, to put all that coast, from the river St. John's to Hudson's Streights, together with the islands of Anticosti and Madelaine, and all other smaller islands lying upon the said coast, under the care and inspection of our governor of Newfoundland.

We have also, with the advice of our privy-council, thought fit to annex the islands of St. John, and Cape Breton, or Isle Royale, with the lesser islands adjacent thereto, to our government of Nova Scotia.

We have also, with the advice of our privy-council afore-said, annexed to our province of Georgia, all the lands lying between the rivers Alatamaha and St. Mary's.

And whereas it will greatly contribute to the speedy settling our said new governments, that our loving subjects should be informed of our paternal care for the security of the liberties and properties of those, who are and shall become inhabitants thereof: we have thought fit to publish and declare, by this our proclamation, that we have, in the letters patent under our great seal of Great-Britain, by which the said governments are constituted, given express power and direction to our governors of our said colonies respectively, that so soon as the state and circumstances of the said colonies will admit thereof, they shall, with the advice and consent of the members of our council, summon and call general assemblies within the said governments respectively, in such manner and form as is used and directed in those colonies and provinces in America, which

are under our immediate government; and we have also given power to the said governors, with the consent of our said councils, and the representatives of the people, so to be summoned as aforesaid, to make, constitute, and ordain laws, statutes, and ordinances for the public peace, welfare, and good government of our said colonies, and of the people and inhabitants thereof, as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England, and under such regulations and restrictions as are used in other colonies; and in the mean time, and until such assemblies can be called as aforesaid, all persons inhabiting in or resorting to our said colonies, may confide in our royal protection for the enjoyment of the benefit of the laws of our realm of England; for which purpose we have given power under our great seal to the governors of our said colonies respectively, to erect and constitute, with the advice of our said councils respectively, courts of judicature and public justice within our said colonies, for the hearing and determining all causes, as well criminal as civil, according to law and equity, and as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England, with liberty to all persons, who may think themselves aggrieved by the sentences of such courts, in all civil cases, to appeal, under the usual limitations and restrictions, to us, in our privy-council.

We have also thought fit, with the advice of our privy-council as aforesaid, to give unto the governors and councils of our said three new colonies upon the continent, full power and authority to settle and agree with the inhabitants of our said new colonies, or with any other persons who shall resort thereto, for such lands, tenements, and hereditaments, as are now, or hereafter shall be in our power to dispose of, and them to grant to any such person or persons, upon such terms, and under such moderate quit-rents, services, and acknowledgments, as have been appointed and settled in our other colonies, and under such other conditions as shall appear to us to be necessary and expedient for the advantage of the grantees, and the improvement and settlement of our said colonies.

And whereas we are desirous, upon all occasions, to testify our royal sense and approbation of the conduct and bravery of the officers and soldiers of our armies, and to reward the same, we do hereby command and empower our governors of our said three new colonies, and all other our governors of our several provinces on the continent of North-America, to grant, without fee or reward, to such reduced officers as have served in North-America during the late war; and to such private soldiers as have been or shall be disbanded in America, and are actually residing there, and shall personally apply for the same,

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the following quantities of lands, subject, at the expiration of ten years, to the same quit-rents as other lands are subject to in the province within which they are granted, as also subject to the same conditions of cultivation and improvement, viz.

To every person having the rank of a field officer, 5000 acres.

To every captain, 3000 acres.

To every subaltern or staff-officer, 2000 acres.

To every non-commission officer, 200 acres.

To every private man, 50 acres.

We do likewise authorize and require the governors and commanders in chief of all our said colonies upon the continent of North-America, to grant the like quantities of land, and upon the same conditions, to such reduced officers of the royal navy of the like rank, as served on board our ships of war in North-America, at the times of the reduction of Louisbourg and Quebec, in the late war, and who shall personally apply to our respective governors for such grants.

And whereas it is just and reasonable, and essential to our interest, and the security of our colonies, that the several nations or tribes of Indians, with whom we are connected, and who live under our protection, should not be molested or disturbed in the possession of such parts of our dominions and territories as not having been ceded to or purchased by us, are reserved to them or any of them as their hunting-grounds; we do therefore, with the advice of our privy-council, declare it to be our royal will and pleasure, that no governor or commander in chief in any of our colonies of Quebec, East-Florida, or West-Florida, do presume, upon any pretence whatever, to grant warrants of survey, or pass any patents for lands beyond the bounds of their respective governments, as described in their commissions; as also that no governor or commander in chief in any of our other colonies or plantations in America, do presume for the present, and until our further pleasure be known, to grant warrants of survey, or pass patents for any lands beyond the heads or sources of any of the rivers which fall into the Atlantic Ocean from the west and north-west; or upon any lands whatever, which not having been ceded to, or purchased by us, as aforesaid, are reserved to the said Indians, or any of them.

And we do further declare it to be our royal will and pleasure, for the present as aforesaid, to reserve under our sovereignty, protection, and dominion, for the use of the said Indians, all the lands and territories not included within the limits of our said three new governments, or within the limits of the territory granted to the Hudson's-Bay company; as
also

also all the lands and territories lying to the westward of the sources of the rivers which fall into the sea from the west and north-west as aforesaid; and we do hereby strictly forbid, on pain of our displeasure, all our loving subjects from making any purchases or settlements whatever, or taking possession of any of the lands above reserved, without our special leave and licence for that purpose first obtained.

And we do further strictly enjoin and require all persons whatever, who have either wilfully or inadvertently seated themselves upon any lands within the countries above described, or upon any other lands, which not having been ceded to or purchased by us, are still reserved to the said Indians as aforesaid, forthwith to remove themselves from such settlements.

And whereas great frauds and abuses have been committed in the purchasing lands of the Indians, to the great prejudice of our interests, and to the great dissatisfaction of the said Indians; In order therefore to prevent such irregularities for the future, and to the end that the Indians may be convinced of our justice and determined resolution to remove all reasonable cause of discontent, we do, with the advice of our privy-council, strictly enjoin and require, that no private person do presume to make any purchase from the said Indians of any lands reserved to the said Indians within those parts of our colonies, where we have thought proper to allow settlement; but that if at any time any of the said Indians should be inclined to dispose of the said lands, the same only should be purchased only for us, in our name, at some public meeting or assembly of the said Indians, to be held for that purpose by the governor or commander in chief of our colony respectively, within which they shall lie; and in case they should lie within the limits of any proprietary government, they shall be purchased only for the use and in the name of such proprietors, conformable to such directions and instructions as we or they shall think proper to give for that purpose. And we do, by the advice of our privy-council, declare and enjoin, that the trade with said Indians shall be free and open to all our subjects whatever; provided that every person, who may incline to trade with the said Indians, do take out a licence for carrying on such a trade, from the governor or commander in chief of any of our colonies respectively, where such person shall reside, and also give security to observe such regulations as we shall at any time think fit, by ourselves or by our commissaries, to be appointed for this purpose, to direct and appoint for the benefit of the said trade: And we do hereby authorise, enjoin, and require the governors and commanders in chief of all our colonies, respectively, as well as those under our immediate government,

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government, as those under the government and direction of proprietaries, to grant such licences without fee or reward; taking especial care to insert therein a condition that such licence shall be void, and the security forfeited, in case the person, to whom the same is granted, shall refuse or neglect to observe such regulations as we shall think proper to prescribe as aforesaid.

And we do further expressly enjoin and require all officers whatever, as well military as those employed in the management and direction of Indian affairs within the territories reserved, as aforesaid, for the use of the said Indians, to seize and apprehend all persons whatever, who, standing charged with treasons, misprisions of treasons, murders, or other felonies and misdemeanours, shall fly from justice and take refuge in the said territory, and to send them under a proper guard to the colony where the crime was committed of which they stand accused, in order to take their trial for the same.

Given at our court in St. James's, the 7th day of October, 1763, in the third year of our reign,

G O D Save the K I N G.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

NEW MEXICO, INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | | | |
|---------|--------|-----------|----------------------------|
| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
| Length | 2000 | } between | { 94 and 126 W. longitude. |
| Breadth | 1600 | | |

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by unknown lands on the north; by Louisiana, on the east; by old Mexico, and the Pacific ocean, on the south; and by the same ocean, on the west.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|---------------------|-----------------|---------------------|
| North-east division | } New Mexico | } SANTA FE, W. lon. |
| | | |
| South-east division | Apacheira | — St. Antonio. |
| South division | Sonora | — — Teape. |
| West division | } California, a | } St. Juan. |
| | | |

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] These countries lying for the most part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely

extremely agreeable, and a soil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California however they experience great heats in the summer, particularly towards the sea-coast; but in the inland country, the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE AND PRODUCE OF } The natural history of these
THE COUNTRY. } countries is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themselves know little of the matter, and the little they know, they are unwilling to communicate. Their authority being on a precarious footing with the Indians, who here at least still preserve their independance; they are jealous of discovering the natural advantages of these countries, which might be an inducement to the other nations of Europe, to form settlements there. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California, are extremely beautiful and pleasant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, intersected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with various kinds of trees, some producing excellent fruit. With respect to the value of the gold mines in those countries, nothing positive can be asserted. They have undoubtedly enough of natural productions, to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, settling on the rose leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having all the sweetness of refined sugar, without its whiteness. There is also another very singular natural production. In the heart of the country there are plains of salt, quite firm and clear as chrysal, which considering the vast quantities of fish found on its coasts, might render it an invaluable acquisition to any industrious nation.

INHABITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, } The Spanish
RELIGION AND COMMERCE. } settlements here are comparatively weak; though they are encreasing every day in proportion as new mines are discovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spanish missionaries have in many places brought over to Christianity, to a civilized life, to raise corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. California was discovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico; our famous navigator Sir Francis Drake took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king, or chief in the whole country. This title however the government of Great-Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, tho' California is admirably situated for trade, and on its coast has a pearl fishery of great value. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from those of Old Mexico.

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OLD MEXICO OR NEW SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | |
|-------------|--------------------------------------|
| Miles. | Degrees. |
| Length 2000 | } between { 83 and 110 W. longitude. |
| Breadth 600 | |

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by New Mexico, or Granada, on the north; by the gulph of Mexico, on the north-east; by Terra Firma, on the south-east; and by the Pacific ocean, on the south-west, containing three audiences, viz.

| Audiences. | Chief Towns. |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Galicia or Guadalajara | Guadalajara. |
| 2. Mexico Proper ——— | MEXICO, W. lon. 102-35. |
| | N. lat. 20. |
| | Acapulco |
| 3. Guatimala ——— | Vera Cruz. |
| | Guatimala. |

BAYS.] On the north-sea are the gulphs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific ocean, or South-Sea, are the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco, and Salinas.

CAPES.] These are cape Sardo, cape St. Martin, cape Cornucedo, cape Catoche, cape Honduras, cape Cameron, and cape Gracias Dios, in the North Sea.

Cape Marques, cape Spirito Sancto, cape Corientes, cape Gallero, cape Blanco, cape Burica, cape Pruceos, and cape Mala, in the South-Sea.

WINDS.] In the gulph of Mexico, and the adjacent seas, there are strong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail every where at a distance from land within the tropics. Near the coast in the South-Sea, they have their periodical winds, viz. Monsoons, and sea and land breezes, as in Asia.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Mexico lying for the most part within the torrid zone, is excessively hot, and on the eastern coast, where the land is low, marshy, and constantly flooded in the rainy seasons, it is likewise extremely unwholesome. The inland country, however, assumes a better aspect, and the air is of a milder temperament; on the western side the land is not so low, as on the eastern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The soil of Mexico in general is of a good variety, and would not refuse any sort of grain were

the industry of the inhabitants to correspond with their natural advantages.

PRODUCE.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts, are here in the greatest plenty and perfection. Mexico produces also a prodigious quantity of sugar, especially towards the gulph of Mexico, and the province of Guaxaca and Guatimala, so that here are more sugar mills than in any other part of Spanish America. But what is considered as the chief glory of this country, and what first induced the Spaniards to form settlements upon it, are the mines of gold and silver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, confining upon Darien and Terra Firma. Those of silver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in several parts, but in none so much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the most barren and mountainous part of the country; nature making amends in one respect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and silver mines depends on the same principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of several heterogeneous substances, mixed with the precious metals, it is broke into small pieces by a mill, and afterwards washed, by which means it is disengaged from the earth, and other soft bodies which cling to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all substances, has the strongest attraction for gold, and likewise a stronger attraction for silver, than the other substances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and silver are first separated from the heterogeneous matter, and then by straining and evaporation, they are disunited from the mercury itself. Of the gold and silver, which the mines of Mexico afford, great things have been said. Those who have enquired most into this subject, compute the revenues of Mexico at twenty-four millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spanish America, supply the whole world with silver. The other articles next in importance to gold and silver, are the cochineal and cocoa. After much dispute concerning the nature of the former, it seems at last agreed, that it is of the animal kind, and of the species of the gall insects. It adheres to the plant called *Opuntia*, and sucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimson colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value, which consists in dying all sorts of the finest scarlet, crimson and purple. It is also used in medicine as a sudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export

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no less than nine hundred thousand pounds weight of this commodity, to answer the purposes of medicine and dying. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, is the next considerable article in the natural history and commerce of Mexico. It grows on a tree of a middling size which bears a pod about the size and shape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spanish commerce in this article is immense; and such is the internal consumption, as well as external call for it, that a small garden of cocoa's is said to produce to the owner, twenty thousand crowns a year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholesome, nutritious, and suitable to the climate. This country likewise produces silk, but not in such abundance as to make any remarkable part of their export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and on account of its lightness is the common wear of the inhabitants.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } We shall place these
GOVERNMENT AND MANNERS. } heads under one point of view, because, the reader will soon be sensible, they are very nearly connected. We have already described the original inhabitants of Mexico, and the conquest of that country by the Spaniards. The present inhabitants may be divided into Whites, Indians, and negroes. The Whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are creoles, . . . e. natives of Spanish America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the same character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a still more considerable portion of pride; for they consider themselves as entitled to every high distinction as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are descended, without that courage, firmness, and patience, which makes the praise-worthy part of the Spanish character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greatest part of their lives to loitering, and inactive pleasures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expensive with great parade, and little conveniency, their general character is no more than a grave and specious insignificance. From idleness and constitution their whole business is amour and intrigue; and their ladies of consequence are not at all distinguished for their chastity or domestic virtues. The Indians, who notwithstanding the devastations of the first invaders, remain in great numbers, are become by continual oppression and indignity, a dejected timorous and miserable race of mortals. The blacks here, like all those in other parts of the world, are stubborn, hardy, and well adapted for the gross slavery they endure.

Such

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greatest part of Spanish America. The civil government is administered by tribunals, called Audiencias, which bear a resemblance to the parliaments in France. In these courts the viceroy of the king of Spain presides. His employment is the greatest trust and power, which his Catholic majesty has in his disposal, and is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. The greatness of the viceroy's office is diminished by the shortness of its duration. For, as jealousy is the leading feature of Spanish politics, in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to maintain his power for more than three years, which no doubt may have a good effect in securing the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy consequences to the miserable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico, and it has been computed, that priests, monks and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spanish America. It is impossible indeed to find a richer field, or one more peculiarly adapted to ecclesiastics in any part of the world. The people are superstitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with such materials to work upon, it is not remarkable, that the church should enjoy one fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom. It is more surprising, that it has not a half.

COMMERCE, CITIES, } The trade of Mexico consists of
AND SHIPPING. } three great branches, which extends
over the whole known world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by la Vera Cruz, situated on the gulph of Mexico or North-Sea; with the East Indies, by Acapulco on the South-Sea, and with South-America, by the same port. These two sea-ports Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are wonderfully well situated for the commercial purposes to which they are applied. It is by means of the former, that Mexico pours her wealth over all the whole world; and receives in return the numberless luxuries and necessaries, which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themselves. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, consisting of three men of war, as a convoy, and 14 large merchant ships, annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargo consists of every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who send out little more than wine and oil. The profit of these, with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from her American commerce.

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commerce. When all the goods are landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities for Europe. Sometimes in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz, they sail to the Havana, in the isle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagená, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy necessary for their safety, they steer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the sea-port, by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spanish empire in America and the East Indies. About the month of December, the great galeon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, which make the only communication between the Philippines and Mexico, annually arrive here. The cargoes of these ships, for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewise carries goods, consist of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the east. At the same time the annual ship from Lima the capital of Peru comes in, and is not computed to bring less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quicksilver and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchase of the galeons cargoes. Several other ships from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the same occasion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, lasts thirty days. The galeon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with silver and such European goods as have been thought necessary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but small gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial states, to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the Flota, so, the Spanish inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the same indolence which ruined their European successors, permit the Chinese merchants to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the galeon. Notwithstanding what has been said of Vera Cruz, and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be considered as the center of commerce in this part of the world. For here the principal merchants reside, and the greatest part of the business is negotiated. The East India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, all pass thro' this city. Hither all the gold and silver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is deposited, and here is wrought all those utensils and ornaments in plate which is every year sent into Europe. The city itself breathes the air of the highest magnificence, and according to the best account contains about 80,000 inhabitants.

Spanish Dominions in SOUTH AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, or Castilla del Oro.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|-------------|-----------|---------------------------|
| Length 1400 | } between | { 60 and 82 W. longitude. |
| Breadth 700 | | |

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the north sea (part of the Atlantic ocean) on the north; by the same sea and Surinam, on the east; by the country of the Amazons and Peru, on the South; and the Pacific ocean and New Spain, on the west.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. |
|--|--------------------------------------|--|
| The north division contains the provinces of | 1. Terra-firma Proper, or Darien ——— | Porto Bello PANAMA, W. lon. 81-52 N. lat. 8-50 |
| | 2. Cartagena ——— | Cartagena |
| | 3. St. Martha ——— | St. Martha |
| | 4. Rio de la Hacha ——— | Rio de la Hacha |
| | 5. Venezuela ——— | Venezuela |
| | 6. Comana ——— | Comana |
| | 7. New Andalusia, or Paria ——— | St. Thomas |
| The south division contains the provinces of | 1. New Granada ——— | Santa Fé de Bagota |
| | 2. Popayan ——— | Popayan. |

BAYS, CAPES, &c.] The Isthmus of Darien, or Terra-firma proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello in the north, to Panama in the South-Sea, or rather a little west of these two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America, and here the Isthmus or Neck of land is only 60 miles over.

The principal bays in Terra-firma are, the bay of Panama, and the bay of St. Michael's in the South-Sea; the bay of Porto Bello, the gulph of Darien, Sino bay, Cartagena bay and harbour, the gulph of Venezuela, the bay of Maracaibo, the gulph of Tricño, the bay of Guaira, the bay of Curacao, and the gulph of Paria or Andalusia, in the north sea.



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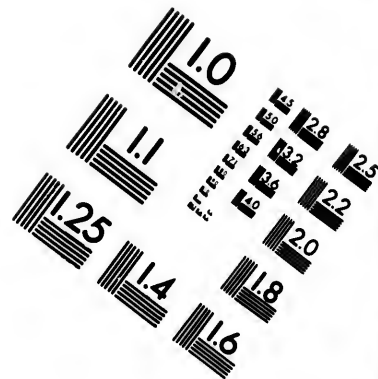
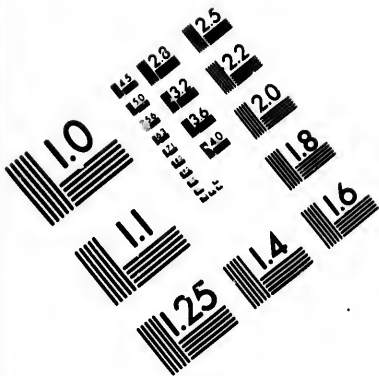
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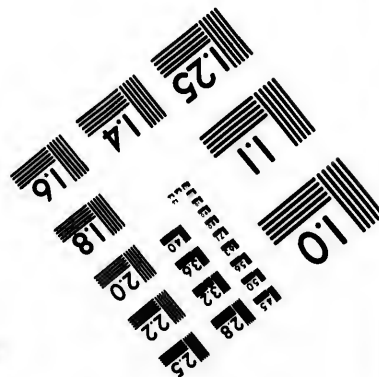
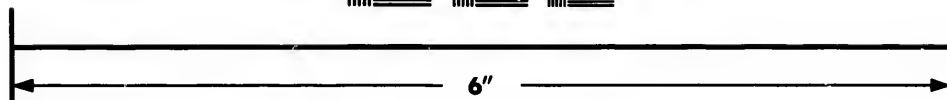
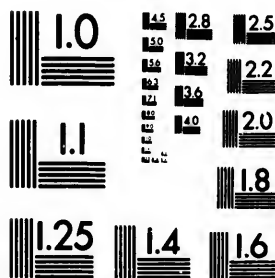
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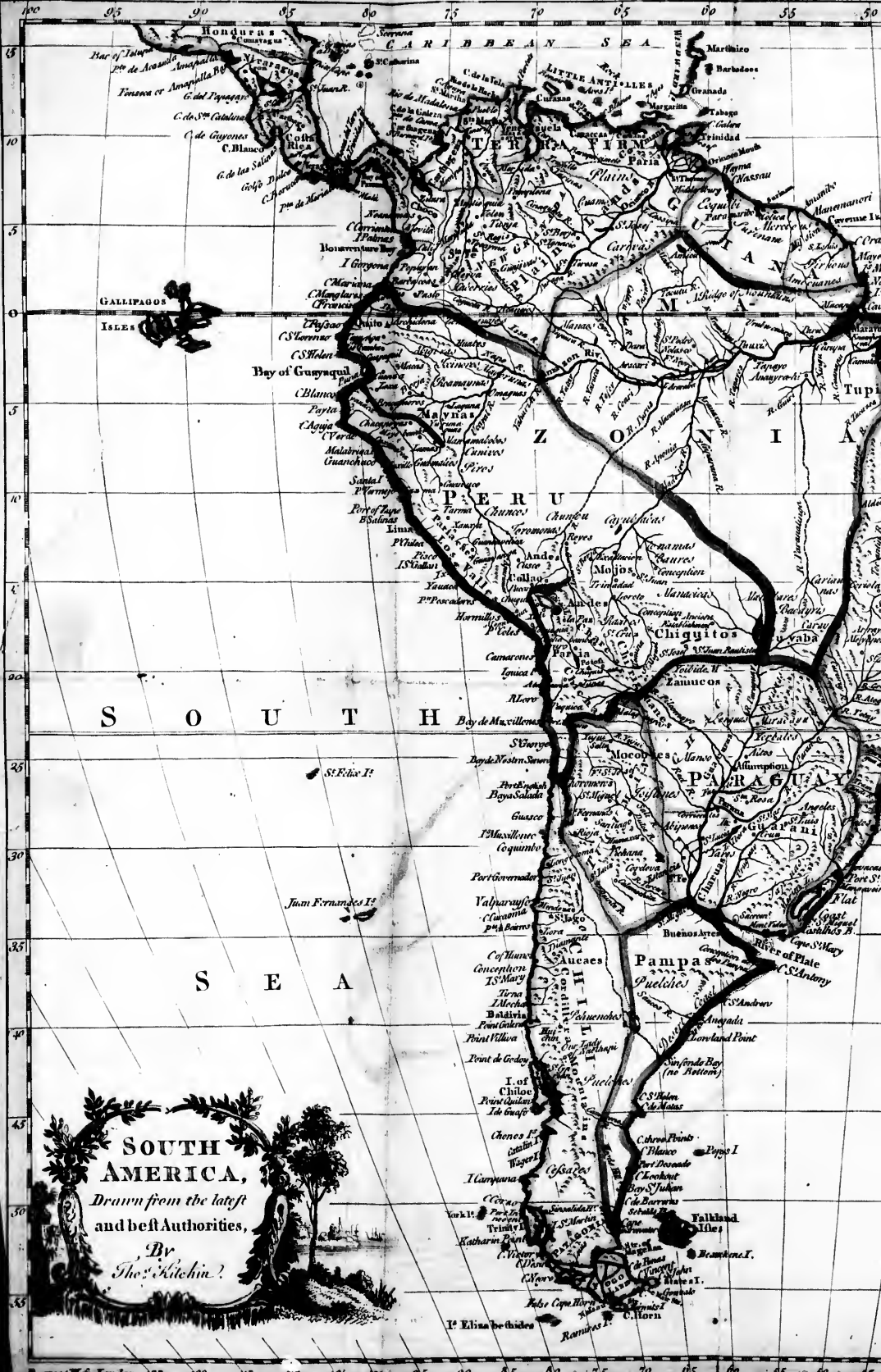


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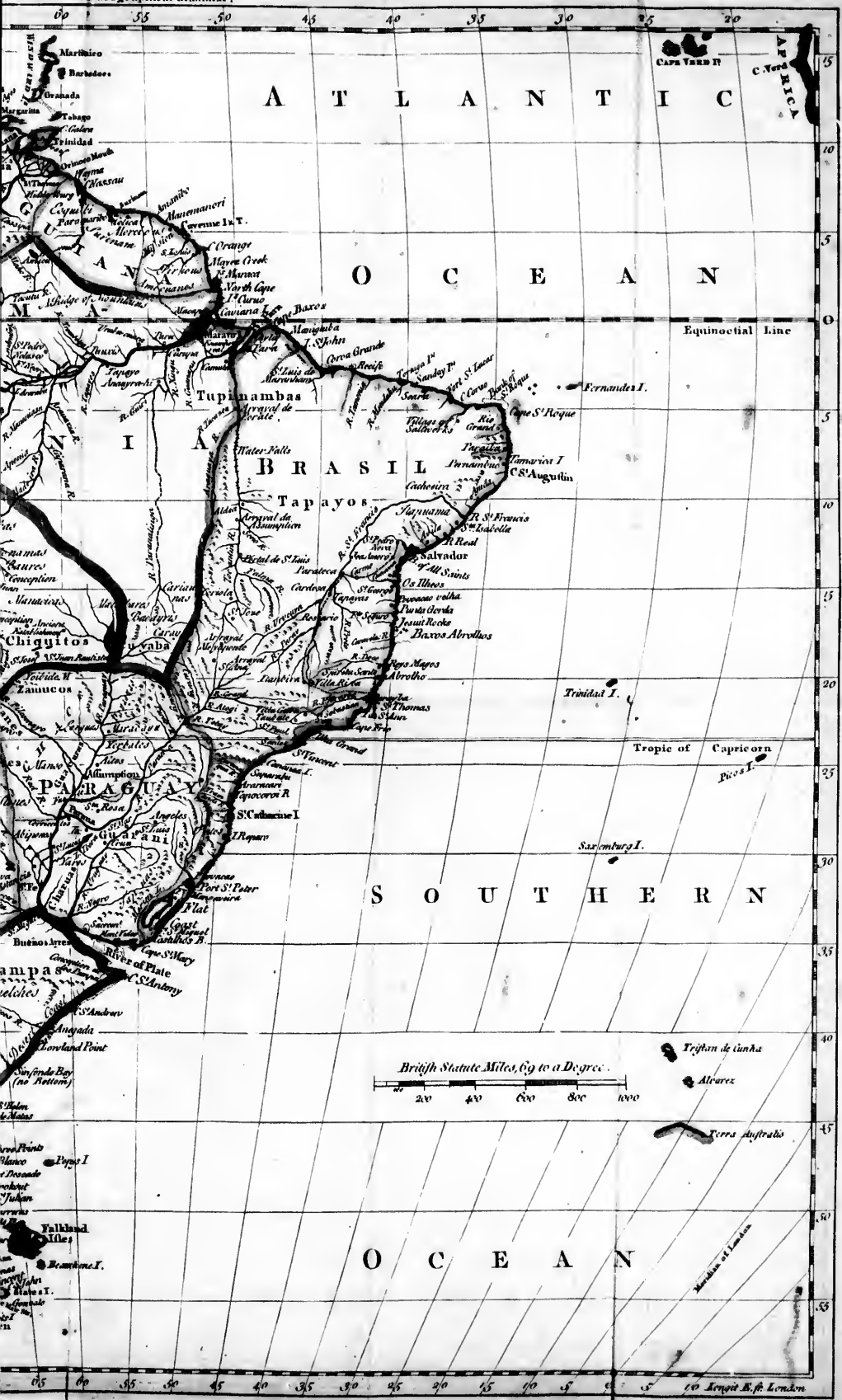
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SOUTH AMERICA,
Drawn from the latest and best Authorities,
By Tho. Kitchin?



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The chief capes are, Samblas point, Point Canoa, Cape del Agua, Swart point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points; and Cape Nassau; all on the north shore of Terra-firma.

CLIMATE.] The climate here, particularly in the northern divisions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmest day in Paris, is continual at Carthage; the excessive heats raise the vapour of the sea, which is precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country therefore, is almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive heat, so impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholesome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The soil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impossible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This however only applies to the inland country, for the coasts are generally barren sand, and incapable of bearing any species of grain. The trees, most remarkable for their dimensions, are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balsam tree. The manzanillo tree is particularly remarkable. It bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains the most subtle poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. The malignity of this tree is such, that if a person only sleeps under it, he finds his body all swelled, and racked with the severest tortures. The beasts from instinct always avoid it. The Habella de Carthage is the fruit of a species of willow, and contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white, and extremely better. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never failing remedy for the bite of the most venomous vipers and serpents, which are very frequent all over this country. There were formerly rich mines of gold in this country, which are now in a great measure exhausted. The silver, iron, and copper mines, have been since opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, sapphires, and other precious stones.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North America we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the southern parts, it is therefore unnecessary to repeat them hereafter. Among those peculiar to this country, the most remarkable is the sloth, or as it is called by way of derision, the Swiss Peter. It bears a resemblance to an ordinary monkey in shape

and fize, but is of a most wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its skin all over corrugated. He stands in no need of either chain or hutch, never stirring unless compelled by hunger; and he is said to be several minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with such a plaintive, and at the same time, so disagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and disgust. In this cry consists the whole defence of this wretched animal. For on the first hostile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with disgustful howlings, so that his pursuer flies much more speedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noise. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he ascends with a world of uneasiness, moving, and crying, and stopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to save himself such another troublesome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himself in a bunch, and with a shriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in these countries are very numerous; they keep together 20 or 30 in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a single person, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at least they chatter, and make a frightful noise, throwing things at him; they hang themselves by the tail, on the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes; but where two or three people are together, they usually scamper away.

NATIVES.] Besides the Indians in this country, who fall under our general description, vol. II. page 338, there is another species of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a smaller stature than the ordinary Indians. Their dispositions too are more soft and effeminate; but what principally distinguishes them is their large weak blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the sun, see best by moon light, and from which they are therefore called Moon-eyed Indians.

**INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, } We have already men-
AND CHIEF TOWNS. } tioned how this country fell
into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore
do not materially differ from those of Mexico. To what we
have observed therefore with regard to that country, it is only
necessary to add that the original inhabitants of Spain are
variously intermixed with the negroes and Indians. These
intermixtures form various gradations, which are carefully
distinguished from each other, because every person expects to
be regarded in proportion as a greater share of the Spanish blood**

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runs in his veins. The first distinction, arising from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes, which is well known. Next to these are the Tercerones, produced from a white and mulatto. From the intermarriage with these and the whites, arise the Quarterones, who, though still nearer the former, are disgraced with a tint of negro blood. But the produce of these and the whites, are the Quinterones, which is very remarkable, are not to be distinguished from the real Spaniards, but by being of a still fairer complexion. The same gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes; and besides these, there are a thousand others, hardly distinguishable by the natives themselves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello; which are three of the most considerable cities in Spanish America; and each containing several thousand inhabitants. Here there are annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandise of Terra Firma, the pearls found in the coast, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the least considerable. An immense number of negro slaves, are employed in fishing for these, and have arrived at wonderful dexterity at this occupation. They are sometimes however devoured by fish, particularly the sharks, while they dive to the bottom, or crushed against the shelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the same footing with that of Mexico.

P E R U.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | | |
|-------------|-------------|--|
| Miles. | Degrees. | |
| Length 1800 | } between { | the equator and 25 south lat. 60 and 81 west longitude. |
| Breadth 500 | | |

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Terra Firma, on the north; by the mountains, or Cordeliria's des Andes, east; by Chili, south; and by the Pacific ocean, west.

| Divisions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|---------------------|------------------------|---|
| The north division | { Quito — — } | { Quito Payta |
| The middle division | { Lima, or Los Reyes } | { LIMA, 77-30 W. lon. 12-15 S. lat., Cusco, and Callao, |
| The south division | { Los Charcos — } | { Potosi Porco, |

SEAS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only sea which borders on Peru is the Pacific ocean or South-Sea. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Cosma, Vermeio, Guara, Callao, the port town to Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

RIVERS.] There is a river whose waters are as red as blood. The rivers Granda, or Cagdalená, Oronoque, Amazon, and Plate, rise in the Andes.

A great many other rivers rise in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific ocean, between the equator and eight degrees S. Lat.

PETRIFIED WATERS.] There are some waters, which, in their course, turn into stone; and fountains of liquid matter, called Coppey, resembling pitch and tar, and used by seamen for the same purpose.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet, having on one side the south Sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not so stifled with heat, as the other tropical countries. The sky too, which is generally cloudy, shields them from the direct rays of the sun; but what is extremely singular, it never rains in Peru. This defect, however, is sufficiently supplied by a soft kindly dew, which falls regularly every night on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grass, as to produce in many places the greatest fertility. Along the sea coast Peru is generally a dry barren land, except by the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND } There are many gold
MINERAL PRODUCTIONS. } mines in the northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are constantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns shift with the mines. That of Potosi, when the silver there was found at the easiest expence, for now having gone so deep, it is not so easily brought up, contained 90,000 souls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were six to one. The northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. Wool is another article of its produce, and is no less remarkable for its fineness, than for the animals on which it grows; these they call Lamas and Vicunnas. The Lama has a small head, in some measure resembling that of a horse and sheep at the same time. It is about the size of a stag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it spits a kind of venomous juice, which enflames the part it falls on. The flesh of the Lama is agreeable and salutary, and the animal is not only useful in affording wool and food, but also as a beast of burden.

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burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the steepest mountains with a burden of 60 or 70 lb. It feeds very sparingly, and never drinks. The Vicunna is smaller and swifter than the Lama, and produces wool still finer in quality. In the Vicunna too is found the Bezoar stones, regarded as a specific against poisons. The next great article in their produce and commerce is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jesuits bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug, grows principally in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The best bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds; the tree which bears it, is about the size of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit, resembling the almond. But it is only the bark, which has these excellent qualities that render it so useful in intermitting fevers, and other disorders to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greatest abundance in the vale of Arica, a district in the southern parts of Peru, from whence they export it annually to the value of 600,000 crowns. Peru is likewise the only part of Spanish America, which produces quicksilver, an article of immense value, considering the various purposes to which it is applied, and especially the purification of gold and silver. The principal mine of this singular metal is at a place called Guancavelica, where it is found in a whitish mass resembling brick ill burned. This substance is volatilized by fire, and received in steam by a combination of glass vessels, where it condenses by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel, and forms a pure heavy liquid.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE AND CITIES.] We join these articles here because of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we shall describe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spanish empire; its situation in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the most proper for a city, which he expected would preserve his memory. It is so well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, command a stream, each for his own use. There are many very magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houses in general are built of slight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering stone houses unnecessary; and besides it is found, that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a

quarter. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a sixth part. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, amounting to seventeen millions sterling. All travellers speak with amazement of the decorations of the churches, with gold, silver and precious stones, which load and ornament even the walls. The only thing that could justify these accounts is the immense richness and extensive commerce of the inhabitants. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the product of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru stand in need of; the fleet from Europe, and the East Indies, land at the same harbour, and the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouses, knowing that they must soon find an outlet for them, since by one channel or other they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster, which always threatens, and has sometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a most tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more terrible or perfect, not more than one of three thousand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the most singular and extraordinary imaginable.—This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as is usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its bosom, and immediately all was silent; but the same wave which destroyed the town, drove a little boat by the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself and was saved. Cusco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a distance from the sea, it has been long on the decline. But it is still a very considerable place, and contains above 40,000 inhabitants.

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inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very industrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have also both here and in Quito, which shall be mentioned directly, a particular taste for painting, and their productions in this way, some of which have been admired in Italy, are dispersed over all South America. Quito is next to Lima in populousness, if not superior to it. It is like Cusco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which supply the consumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS } It would be in vain to pre-
AND GOVERNMENT. } tend saying any thing decisive
with regard to the number of inhabitants in Peru. The Spaniards themselves are remarkably silent on this head. It has been guessed by some writers, that in all Spanish America, there are about three millions of Spaniards and creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater; though neither in any respect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole of the Spanish dominions. Pride and laziness are the two predominant passions. It is agreed on by the most authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The creoles, and all the other descendants of the Spaniards, according to the above distinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true born Castilian could not think of but with detestation. This no doubt in part arises from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spanish pride has made the greatest descents, and many of the first nobility are employed in commerce. It is in this city that the viceroy resides, whose authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has been lately detached from it. The viceroy is as absolute as the king of Spain, but as his territories are so extensive, it is necessary that he should part with a share of his authority to the several audiencies or courts established over the kingdom. There is a treasury court established at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

C H I L I.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|-------------|-----------|-----------------------------|
| Length 1200 | } between | { 25 and 45 south latitude. |
| Breadth 500 | | { 65 and 85 west longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Peru on the north; by La Plata on the east; by Patagonia on the south; and by the Pacific ocean on the west.

| Divisions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|----------------------------------|----------------|--|
| On the west side of the Andes | Chili Proper | { St. JAGO, W. lon. 77. S. lat. 34. |
| | | { Baldivia. Imperial. |
| On the east side of the Andes | Cuyo, or Cutio | { St. John de Frontieræ. |

LAKES.] The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Besides which, they have several salt-water lakes, that have a communication with the sea part of the year. In stormy weather the sea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fish; but in the hot season the water congeals, leaving a crust of fine white salt a foot thick.

BAYS, SEAS, AND HARBOURS.] The only sea that borders upon Chili, is that of the Pacific ocean on the west.

The principal bays or harbours are Copiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valparaiso, Iata, Conception, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewers-haven, and Castro.

CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCE.] These are not remarkably different from the same in Peru; and if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with respect to the gifts of nature. For here, not only the tropical fruits, but all species of grain, of which a considerable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the same with those of Peru, and they have gold almost in every river.

INHABITANTS.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are still in a great measure unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preservation from the Spanish yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition, with regard to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above 25,000; and the Indians, negroes and mulattoes, are not supposed to be thrice that number.

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COMMERCE.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and some parts of Mexico. To the former they export annually corn sufficient for 60,000 men. Their other exports are hemp, which is raised in no other part of the South Seas, hides, tallow, and salted provisions, and receive in return the commodities of Europe, and the East Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

PARAGUAY, or LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | | | |
|---------|--------|-------------|---------------------------|
| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
| Length | 1500 | } between { | 12 and 37 south latitude. |
| Breadth | 1000 | | 50 and 75 west longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Amazonia, on the north; by Brasil, east; by Patagonia, on the south; and by Peru and Chili, west.

| Divisions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|---------------------------|-----------------|---|
| East division contains | Paraguay — | } Assumption St. Anne Cividad Real Los Reyes. |
| | Parana — | |
| | Guaira — | |
| | Uragua — | |
| South division | Tucuman — | } St. Jago BUENOS AYRES, W. lon. 57- 54. S. lat. 34-35. |
| | Rio de la Plata | |

BAYS AND LAKES.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which stands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which is 100 miles long.

RIVERS.] This country, besides an infinite number of small rivers, is watered by three principal ones, which united near the sea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks; and, on their recess, leave them enriched with a slime, that produces the greatest plenty of whatever is committed to it.

AIR, SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This vast tract is far from being wholly subdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people of Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge, is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, interrupted by not the least hill for several hundred miles every way; extremely fertile, and producing cotton in great quantities; tobacco,

tobacco, and the valuable herb, called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich pastures, in which are bred such herds of cattle, that it is said the hides of the beasts are all that is properly bought, the carcase being in a manner given into the bargain. A horse some time ago might be bought for a dollar, and the usual price for a beast chosen out of a herd of 2 or 300, was only four rials. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this country is destitute of woods. The air is remarkably sweet and serene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholesome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF } The Spaniards first disco-
CITY AND COMMERCE. } vered this country, by sail-
ing up the river La Plata in 1515, and founded the town of
Buenos Ayres, so called on account of the excellence of the
air, on the south side of the river, fifty leagues within the
mouth of it, where the river is seven leagues broad. This is
one of the most considerable towns in South America, and
the only place of traffic to the southward of Brazil. Here we
meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular
fleet comes here, as to the other parts of Spanish America ;
two, or at most three, register ships, make the whole of their
regular intercourse with Europe. Their returns are very
valuable, consisting chiefly of the gold and silver of Chili and
Peru, sugar and hides. Those who have now and then carried
on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advan-
tageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contra-
band is now wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep
magazines for that purpose, in such parts of Brazil as lie near
this country. Since the English have got a footing near this
coast by their new settlement of port Egmont in the Falkland
isles, we may suppose they will make an attempt to a share of
this profitable commerce. The trade of Paraguay, and the
manners of the people, are so much the same with those of the
rest of the Spanish colonies in South America, that nothing
further can be said on those articles.

But we cannot quit this country without saying something
of that extraordinary species of commonwealth, which the
Jesuits have erected in the interior parts, and of which these
crafty priests have endeavoured to keep all strangers in the
dark.

About the middle of last century those fathers represented to
the court of Spain, that their want of success in their missions,
was owing to the scandal which the immorality of the Span-
iards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their
insolent behaviour caused in the Indians, wherever they came.
They insinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment,

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the empire of the gospel might, by their labours, have been extended into the most unknown parts of America; and that all those countries might be subdued to his Catholic majesty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonstrance met with success; the sphere of their labours was marked out; an uncontrouled liberty was given to the Jesuits within these limits; and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to suffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale, without license from the fathers. They on their part agreed, to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to send a certain number to the king's works whenever they should be demanded, and the missions should become populous enough to supply them.

On these terms the Jesuits gladly entered upon the scene of action, and opened their spiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about 50 wandering families, whom they persuaded to settle; and they united them into a little township. This was the slight foundation upon which they built a superstructure, which has amazed the world, and added so much power, at the same time that it has brought on so much envy and jealousy, to their society. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with such indefatigable pains, and with such masterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the most savage nations; fixed the most rambling, and subdued those to their government, who had long disdained to submit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese. They prevailed upon thousands of various dispersed tribes to embrace their religion, and these soon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace with precision all the steps which were taken in the accomplishment of so extraordinary a conquest over the bodies and minds of so many people. The Jesuits left nothing undone, that could conduce to their remaining in this subjection, or that could tend to increase their number to the degrees requisite for a well ordered and potent society; and it is said that above 340,000 families, several years ago, were subject to the Jesuits, living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or constraint: That the Indians were instructed in the military art with the most exact discipline, and could raise 60,000 men well armed: That they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture; they exercised manufactures; some even aspired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of these missions, except their contentment under it.

it. Some writers however have treated the character of these Jesuits with great severity, accusing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to such an excess, as to cause even the magistrates, who are always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes, and to suffer persons of the highest distinction, within their jurisdictions, to kiss the hem of their garments, as the greatest honour. The priests themselves possess large property, all manufactures are theirs, the natural produce of the country is brought to them, and the treasures annually remitted to the superior of the order, seem to evince that zeal for religion is not the only motive of their forming these missions. The fathers will not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Mestizos, or even Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay. Some years ago, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal, the Jesuits refused to comply with this division, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own consent. And we are informed by the authority of the Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but, notwithstanding the exactness of their discipline, they were easily, and with a considerable slaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were sent to quell them.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The island of Cuba is situated between 19 and 23 deg. north lat. and between 74 and 87 deg. west lon. 100 miles to the south of cape Florida, and 75 north of Jamaica, and is near 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills run through the middle of the island from east to west, but the land near the sea is in general level and flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical. This noble island is supposed to have the best soil, for so large a country, of any in America. It produces all the commodities known in the West Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other spices, cassia, fistula, music and aloes. It also produces tobacco and sugar, but from the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected. It is owing to the same cause that this large island does not produce, including all its commodities, so much for exportation as our small island of Antigua.

The course of the rivers is too short to be of any consequence, but there are several good harbours in the island, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly situated, and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich.

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rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital city of Cuba, and a place of great strength and importance, containing about 2000 houses, with a great number of convents and churches. It was taken however, by the courage and perseverance of the English troops in the last war, but restored in the sixty-third article of the treaty of peace. Besides these, there is likewise Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a considerable town thirty miles east of the Havannah.

HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO.] This island was at first possessed by the Spaniards alone, but by far the most considerable part is now in the hands of the French. However, as the Spaniards were the original possessors, and still continue to have a share in it, Hispaniola is commonly regarded as a Spanish island.

It is situated between the 17th and 21st deg. north lat. and the 67th and 74th of west lon. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto-Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. The face of the country presents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods and rivers, and the soil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and cassava root. The European cattle are so multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the most barren parts of the rocks, they discovered formerly silver and gold. The mines however are not worked now. The north-west parts, which are in the possession of the French, consist of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vast abundance. This indeed is the best and most fruitful part, of the best and most fertile island in the West Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The most antient town in this island, and in all the new world, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole island is sometimes named, especially by the French. It is situated on a spacious harbour, and is a large well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spanish towns, by a mixture of Europeans, creoles, mulattos, mustees, and negroes.

The French towns are, cape St. Francois, the capital, which is neither walled nor palled in, and is said to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. It contains about 8000 whites and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of size, is a good

port, a place of considerable trade, and the seat of the French government in that island. They have two other towns considerable for their trade, Petit Guaves, and port Louis.

It is computed that the exports of the French, from the above-mentioned places, are not less in value than 1,200,000 l. They likewise carry on a contraband trade with the Spaniards, which is much to their advantage, as they exchange French manufactures for Spanish dollars.

PORTO RICO.] Situated between 64 and 67 deg. west lon. and in 18 deg. north lat. lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's, is 100 miles long, and 40 broad. The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers; but the island is unhealthful in the rainy seasons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards settled here, but there is no longer any considerable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, stands in a little island on the north side of the main island, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief island by a causeway, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than most of the Spanish towns, because it is the center of the contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the king of Spain's subjects.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.] Situated at the east end of Porto Rico, are extremely small.

TRINIDAD.] Situated between 59 and 62 deg. west lon. and in 10 deg. north lat. lies between the island of Tobago and the Spanish Main, from which it is separated by the streights of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthful, but fruitful soil, producing sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and some cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the island and extorted money from the inhabitants.

MARGARETTA.] Situated in 64 deg. west lon. and 11-30 N. lat. separated from the northern coast of New Andalusia, in Terra-firma, by a strait of 24 miles, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a most agreeable prospect. The island abounds in pasture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a scarcity of wood
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and water. There was once a pearl fishery on its coast, which is now discontinued.

There are many other small islands in these seas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention. We shall therefore proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the first Spanish island of any importance is CHILOE, on the coast of Chili, which has a governor and some harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.] Lying in 83 deg. west lon. and 33 south lat. 300 miles west of Chili. This island is uninhabited, but having some good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the English cruisers to touch at and water; and here they are in no danger of being discovered, unless when, as is generally the case, their arrival in the South Seas, and their motions, have been made known to the Spaniards by our good friends in Brazil. This island is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It seems one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotsman, was left ashore in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived some years, until he was discovered by captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had forgot his native language, and could scarcely be understood, seeming to speak his words by halves. He was dressed in goats skins, would drink nothing but water, and it was some time before he could relish the ship's victuals. During his abode in this island, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of these were caught, 30 years after, by lord Anson's people; their venerable aspect and majestic beards, discovered strong symptoms of antiquity.

Selkirk, upon his return to England, was advised to publish an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication. But that industrious gentleman, by the help of these papers and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again, after defrauding him, by this piece of craft, of the benefits he was so justly entitled to hope from them.

The other islands that are worth mentioning are, the Gallipago isles, situated 400 miles west of Peru, under the equator; and those in the bay of Panama, called the King's or Pearl Islands.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA;

CONTAINING BRAZIL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | | | |
|---------|--------|-----------|----------------------------------|
| | Miles. | | Degrees. |
| Length | 2500 | } between | { the equator and 35 S. latitude |
| Breadth | 700 | | |

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the north; by the same ocean, on the east; by the mouth of the river Plata, south; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of Amazons, on the west.

On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions in their voyage to the South-Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catharine's.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, } AND CAPES. } The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast of Brazil on the north-east and east, upwards of 3000 miles, forming several fine bays and harbours; as the harbours of Panambuco, All-Saints, Porto-Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north shore of the river La Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St. Augustine, Cape Trio, and Cape St. Mary, the most southerly promontory of Brazil.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, } AIR, CLIMATE AND RIVERS. } The name of Brazil was given to this country, because it was observed to abound with a wood of that name. To the northward of Brazil, which lies almost under the equator, the climate is hot, boisterous, and unwholesome, subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have such deluges of rain, with storms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to the southward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world that enjoys a more serene and wholesome air, refreshed with the soft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coast is in general rather low than high, but exceeding pleasant, it being interspersed with meadows and woods; but on the west, far within land, are mountains from whence issue many noble streams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and

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and La Plata, others running across the country from east to west till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the sugar mills belonging to the Portuguese.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] In general the soil is extremely fruitful, producing sugar, which being clayed, is whiter and finer than our muscovado, as we call our unrefined sugar. Also tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balsam of Copaibo, Brazil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dying, but not the red of the best kind; it has likewise some place in medicine, as a stomachic and restringent.

The animals here are the same as in Peru and Mexico. The produce of the soil was found very sufficient for subsisting the inhabitants, until the mines of gold and diamonds were discovered; these, with the sugar plantations, occupy so many hands, that agriculture lies neglected; and, in consequence, Brazil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The portrait given us of the manners and customs of the Portuguese in America, by the most judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are described as a people, who, while sunk in the most effeminate luxury, practise the most desperate crimes. Of a temper hypocritical and dissembling; of little sincerity in conversation, or honesty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel. In their diet, penurious; for, like the inhabitants of most southern climates, they are much more fond of shew, state, and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society, and of a good table; yet their feasts, which are seldom made, are sumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cause themselves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called serpentines, which are borne on the negroes shoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Most of these hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the same colour: they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of tester, with curtains; so that the person carried cannot be seen, unless he pleases; but may either lie down or sit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be seen, he pulls the curtains aside, and salutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the streets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and will even hold long conferences in them in the streets; but then the two slaves who carry them, make use of a strong well-made staff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron: this they stick fast in the ground, and rest the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed,

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on two of these, till their master's business or compliment is over. Scarce any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the same exclusive plan on which the several nations of Europe trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly resembles the Spanish method, in not sending out single ships, as the convenience of the several places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which sail at stated times from Portugal, and compose three flotas, bound to as many ports in Brazil; namely, to Fernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the southern extremity; and to the Bay of All-Saints, in the middle.

In this last is the capital, which is called St. Salvador, and sometimes the city of Bahia, and where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour; it is built upon an high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, and a lake, forming a crescent, investing it almost wholly so as nearly to join the sea, on the other. The situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and they have besides added to it very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond comparison, the most gay and opulent city in all Brazil.

The trade of Brazil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprising, as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America; they being the only European nation that has established colonies in Africa, and from hence they import between 40 and 50,000 negroes annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Brazil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is supposed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000 l. This, with the sugar, the tobacco, the hides, the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give some idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities the European ships carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal: they consist of the woollen goods, of all kinds, from England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the silks of France and Italy; silk and thread stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in these metals, from England; as well as salt-fish, beef, flour, and cheese. Oil they have from

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from Spain: wine, with some fruit, is nearly all they are supplied with from Portugal.

England is at present most interested in the trade of Portugal, both for home consumption and what they want for the use of the Brazils. However, the French have become very dangerous rivals to us in this, as in many other branches of trade.

Hence it is principally that Brazil is the richest, most flourishing, and most growing establishment in America. Their export of sugar, within 40 years, is grown much greater than it was, though antiently it made almost the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raised in such large quantities as in our American colonies. The northern and southern parts of Brazil abound with horned cattle; these are hunted for their hides only, of which no less than 20,000 are sent annually to Europe.

The Portuguese were a considerable time possessed of Brazil before they discovered the treasures of gold and diamonds, which have since made it so considerable. Their fleets rendezvous in the bay of All-Saints, to the amount of 100 sail of large ships, in the month of May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treasures of the flota and galleons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions sterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony and ivory.

[HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This country was first discovered by Americus Vesputio, in 1498, but the Portuguese did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themselves at the Bay of All-Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with some interruption at first from the court of Spain, who considered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portuguese should possess all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata, which they still enjoy. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when in the very meridian of prosperity, they were struck by one of those blows which instantly decides the fate of kingdoms: don Sebastian, the king of Portugal, lost his life in an expedition against the Moors in Africa, and by that event the Portuguese lost their liberty, being absorbed into the Spanish dominions.

The Dutch, soon after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, and not satisfied with supporting their independency by a successful defensive war, and flushed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, they pursued the Spaniards into the remotest recesses of their extensive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the spoils of their former masters. They particularly attacked the possessions of the Portuguese; they took almost all their fortresses in the East Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brazil, where they took seven of the captainships or provinces; and would have subdued the whole colony, had not their career been stopt by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered forces. The Dutch were, however, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brazil; but their West-India company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tuns of gold, to relinquish their interest in that country; which was accepted; and the Portuguese have remained in peaceable possession of all Brazil from that time, till about the end of 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress called St. Sacrament; but, by the treaty of peace, it was restored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

THE possessions and claims of the French before the last war, as appears by their maps, consisted of almost the whole continent of North America; which vast country they divided into two great provinces, the northern of which they called Canada (comprehending a much greater extent than the British province of that name) and in which they included a great part of our provinces of New-York, New-England, and New-Scotland. The southern province they called Louisiana, in which they included a part of Carolina. This distribution, and the military disposition which the French made to support it, formed the principal cause of the last war between Great Britain and that nation, the issue of which is well known to all the world. For while the French were rearing their infant colonies, and with the most sanguine hopes, forming vast designs of an extensive empire, one wrong step in their politics lost them the whole; their imaginary empire, which existed only upon the face of their maps, vanished like smoke. They over-rated their strength; and by commencing hostilities many years too soon, they were driven from

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from Canada, and forced to yield to Great Britain all that fine country of Louisiana eastward of the Mississippi. At the treaty of peace, however, they were allowed to keep possession of the western banks of that river, and the small town of New Orleans, near the mouth of it; which, in 1769, they ceded to Spain, for reasons unknown to the public.

The French therefore, from being one of the greatest European powers in that quarter, and to the British colonies a very dangerous neighbour and rival; have, in the manner we have seen, lost all footing in North America; but on the southern continent they have still a settlement which is called Cayenne, or Equinoctial France, and is situated between the equator and fifth degree of north latitude, and between the 50th and 55th of west longitude. It extends 240 miles along the coast of Guiana, and near 300 miles within land; bounded by Surinam, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, east; by Amazonia, south; and by Guiana, west. The chief town is Caen.

All the coast is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for settlements; the French have, however, not yet extended them so far as they might; but they raise the same commodities which they have from the West-India islands, and in no inconsiderable quantity. They have also taken possession of the island of Cayenne, on this coast, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about 45 miles in circumference. The island is very unhealthy; but having some good harbours, the French have here some settlements, which raise sugar and coffee.

FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE French were amongst the last nations who made settlements in the West-Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they pursued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they used in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending against the difficulties which it threw in their way.

They are sensible that as the mother country is ultimately to receive all the benefit of their labours and acquisitions, the prosperity of their plantations must be derived from the attention with which they are regarded at home. For this reason, the plantations are particularly under the care and inspection of the council of commerce, a board composed of twelve of the most considerable officers of the crown, assisted by the deputies of all the considerable trading towns and cities in

France, who are chosen out of the richest and most intelligent of their traders, and paid a handsome salary for their attendance at Paris, from the funds of their respective cities. This council sits once a week, when the deputies propose plans for redressing every grievance in trade, for raising the branches that are fallen, for extending new ones, for supporting the old, and, in fine, for every thing that may improve the working, or promote the vent of their manufactures, according to their own lights, or to the instructions of their constituents. When they are satisfied of the usefulness of any regulation, they propose it to the royal council, where their report is always received with particular attention. An edict to enforce it accordingly issues; and is executed with a punctuality that distinguishes their government, and which alone can render the wisest regulations any thing better than serious mockeries. To this body, the care of the plantations is particularly entrusted.

The government of their several colonies, is a governor, an intendant, and a royal council. The governor is invested with a great deal of power; which, however, on the side of the crown, is checked by the intendant, who has the care of the king's rights, and whatever relates to the revenue: and on the side of the people, it is checked by the royal council, whose office it is to see that the people are not oppressed by the one, nor defrauded by the other: and they are all checked by the constant and jealous eye which the government at home keeps over them; the officers of all the ports of France being charged, under the severest penalties, to interrogate all captains of ships coming from the colonies, concerning the reception they met with at the ports to which they have sailed? how justice was administered to them? what charges they were made liable to, and of what kinds?

That the colonies may be as little burthened as possible, and that the governor may have less temptation to stir up troublesome intrigues, or favour factions in his government, his salary is paid by the crown: he has no perquisites, and is strictly forbidden to carry on any trade, or to have any plantations in the islands or on the continent; or any interest whatever, in goods or lands, within his government, except the house he lives in, and a garden for his convenience and recreation. All the other officers are paid by the crown, out of the revenues of the mother country. The fortifications are built and repaired, and the soldiers paid out of the same funds.

In general, their colonies pay no taxes; but when, upon any extraordinary emergency, taxes have been raised, they were very moderate. The duties upon the export of their produce

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produce at the West India islands, or at its import into France, is next to nothing; in both places hardly making two per cent. What commodities go to them pay no duties at all.

Their other regulations, respecting the judges of the admiralty, lawsuits, recovery of debts, lenity to such as have suffered by earthquakes, hurricanes, or bad seasons; the peopling their colonies, number of whites to be employed by the planters, and, lastly, the management of negroes, cannot be sufficiently admired; and would, doubtless, be of great use, were some of them introduced into our sugar islands, where proper regulations in many respects seem to be much wanted.

We have already mentioned the French colony upon the Spanish island of Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, as the most important and valuable of all their foreign settlements, and which they possess through the indolence of the Spaniards on that island, or the partiality of their court to the French nation. We shall next proceed to the islands of which the French have the sole possession, beginning with the large and important one of

MARTINICO.] Which is situated between 14 and 15 deg. of north lat. and in 61 deg. west lon. lying about 40 leagues north west of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out upon every side, a number of agreeable and useful rivers, which adorn and enrich this island in a high degree. The produce of the soil is sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and such fruits as are found in the neighbouring islands. But sugar is here, as in all the West India islands, the principal commodity, of which they export a considerable quantity annually. Martinico is the residence of the governor of the French islands in these seas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious; and so well fortified, that they used to bid defiance to the English, who in vain attempted this place. However, in the last war, when the British arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this island was added to the British empire, but it was given back at the treaty of peace.

GUADALUPE.] So called by Columbus, from the resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Spain, is situated in 16 deg. north lat. and in 62 west lon. about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and almost as much south of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 38 broad. It is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ships can venture; but the inhabitants

bitants pass it in a ferry-boat. Its soil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This island is in a flourishing condition, and its exports of sugar, almost incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the English, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759, it was reduced by the British arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763.

ST. LUCIA.] Situated in 14 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. west lon. 80 miles north-west of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received its name from being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The English first settled on this island in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the English, that this island, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French, before the late war broke out, began to settle these islands; which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and this island to France. The soil of St. Lucia, in the valleys, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleasant rivers, and well situated harbours.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, } Are three small
AND MARIGALANTE, } islands lying in
the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Christophers, and are of no great consequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give shelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our West India trade. It would therefore be good policy in Great Britain, upon the breaking out of a war with France, immediately to take possession of these islands, which would seem to be a matter of no great difficulty, as they have been frequently reduced by the English, and as frequently given back to the French; who have often, and upon many occasions, experienced the generosity of the British court.

DUTCH AMERICA.

Containing SURINAM, on the Continent of
SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portuguese had dispossessed the Dutch of Brazil in the manner we have seen; and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged

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to console themselves with their rich possessions in the East Indies, and to sit down content in the West with Surinam; a country once in the possession of England, but of no great value whilst we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York; and with two or three small and barren islands in the north sea, not far from the Spanish Main.

Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, is situated between 5 and 7 deg. north lat. extending 100 miles along the coast from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, south. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholesome; and a considerable part of the coast is low and covered with water. The chief settlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the same name; and the Dutch have extended their plantations 30 leagues above the mouth of this river. The colony is now in the most flourishing situation, not only with Europe, but with the West-India islands. Their chief trade consists in sugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, skins, and some valuable dying drugs. They trade with our North American colonies, who bring hither horses, live cattle, and provisions; and take home a large quantity of molasses; but their negroes are only the refuse of those they have for the Spanish market.

DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIA.] SITUATED three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's, and is only a mountain about 29 miles in compass, rising out of the sea like a pyramid, and almost round. But, though so small, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the industry of the Dutch have made it turn out to very good account; and it is said to contain 5000 whites, and 15,000 negroes. The sides of the mountain are laid out in very pretty settlements; but they have neither springs nor rivers. They raise here sugar and tobacco; and this island, as well as Curassou, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade, for which, however, it is not so well situated; and it draws the same advantage from its constant neutrality. Its situation renders it the strongest of all the West-India islands, there being but one good landing-place, which may be easily defended by a few men; and the haven is commanded by a strong fort.

CURASSOU.] Situated in 12 deg. north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long and

and 10 broad. It seems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders should every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting against an unfriendly nature; for the island is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America: yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largest, and by far the most elegant and cleanly towns in the West Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handsome; the private houses commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; some of them so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock.

Though this island is naturally barren, the industry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a considerable quantity both of tobacco and sugar; it has, besides, good salt-works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands, and their colonies on the continent. But what renders this island of most advantage to the Dutch, is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ships from Europe touch at this island for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spanish coasts for trade, which they force with a strong hand, it being very difficult for the Spanish guarda costas to take these vessels; for they are not only stout ships, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of chosen seamen, deeply interested in the safety of the vessel and the success of the voyage. They have each a share in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the station of the owner, supplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime cost. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, because every man fights in defence of his own property. Besides this, there is a constant intercourse between this island and the Spanish continent.

Curassou has numerous warehouses, always full of the commodities of Europe and the East-Indies. Here are all sorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, silks, ribbons, iron utensils, naval and military stores, brandy, the spices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch West-India, which is also their African company, annually bring three or four cargoes of slaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themselves come in small vessels, and carry off not only the best of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above sorts of goods; and

and the seller has this advantage, that the refuse of warehouses and mercers shops, with every thing that is grown unfashionable and unsaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being sufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and silver, coined or in bars, cacao, vanilla, jesuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curassou, even in time of peace, is said to be annually worth to the Dutch no less than 500,000 l. but in time of war, the profit is still greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the West-Indies: it affords a retreat to ships of all nations, and at the same time refuses none of them arms and ammunition to destroy one another. The intercourse with Spain being then interrupted, the Spanish colonies have scarce any other market from whence they can be well supplied either with slaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which the English bring from the continent of North-America, or which is exported from Ireland; so that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this island flourishes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American settlements was originally carried on by the West-India company alone: at present, such ships as go upon that trade, pay two and a half per cent. for their licenses: the company, however, reserve to themselves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American islands.

The other islands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconsiderable in themselves, and should be regarded as appendages to Curassou, for which they are chiefly employed in raising cattle and other provisions.

The small islands of Saba and St. Martins, situated at no great distance from St. Eustatia, hardly deserve to be mentioned: the latter is partly inhabited by the English.

DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS.] AN inconsiderable member of the Caribbees, situated in 64 deg. west lon. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ.] Another small and unhealthy island, lying about five leagues east of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadest. These islands, so long as they remained in the hands

hands of the Danish West-India company, were ill managed, and of little consequence to the Danes; but that wise and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's stock, and laid the trade open; and since that time the island of St. Thomas has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of 3000 hogsheads of sugar of 1000 weight each, and others of the West-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for sale; and a great many vessels trade from hence along the Spanish Main, and return with money in specie or bars, and valuable merchandize. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect desert a few years since, it is beginning to settle fast; several persons from the English islands, some of them of great wealth, have gone to settle there, and have received very great encouragement to do so.

These two nations, the Dutch and Danes (and we may now add the French) hardly deserve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their possessions there are comparatively nothing. But as they appear extremely worthy of the attention of these powers, and as the share of the Dutch is worth to them at least 600,000*l.* a year, what must we think of our extensive and valuable possessions? what attention do they not deserve from us? and what may not be made of them by that attention?

“ There seems to be a remarkable providence (says an ingenious and polite writer) in casting the parts, if I may use that expression, of the several European nations who act upon the stage of America. The Spaniard, proud, lazy, and magnificent, has an ample walk in which to expatiate; a soft climate to indulge his love of ease, and a profusion of gold and silver to procure him all those luxuries his pride demands, but which his laziness would refuse him.

The Portuguese, naturally indigent at home, and enterprising rather than industrious abroad, has gold and diamonds as the Spaniard has, wants them as he does, but possesses them in a more useful, though a less ostentatious manner.

The English, of a reasoning disposition, thoughtful and cool, and men of business rather than of great industry, impatient of much fruitless labour, abhorrent of constraint, and lovers of a country life, have a lot which indeed produces neither gold nor silver; but they have a large tract of a fine continent; a noble field for the exercise of agriculture, and sufficient to furnish their trade without laying them under great difficulties. Intolerant as they are of the most useful restraints, their commerce flourishes from the freedom every
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man has of pursuing it according to his own ideas, and directing his life after his own fashion.

The French, active, lively, enterprising, pliable, and politic; and tho' changing their pursuits, always pursuing the present object with eagerness, are, notwithstanding, tractable and obedient to rules and laws, which bridle their dispositions, and wind and turn them to proper courses. These people have a country (when Canada was in their possession) where more is to be effected by managing the people than by cultivating the ground; where a peddling commerce, that requires constant motion, flourishes more than agriculture, or a regular traffic; where they have difficulties which keep them alert by struggling with them, and where their obedience to a wise government (meaning the excellent regulations already mentioned respecting the French colonies in America) serves them for personal wisdom. In the islands, the whole is the work of their policy, and a right turn their government has taken.

The Dutch have got a rock or two, on which to display the miracles of frugality and diligence, (which are their virtues) and on which they have exerted these virtues, and shewn those miracles."

TERRA-INCOGNITA, or unknown Countries.

In A M E R I C A.

IN North America, towards the pole, are Labrador or New-Britain, New North and South Wales, New-Denmark, &c. very little known. The inhabitants, like those of Nova Zembla, Greenland, Groenland, and the northern parts of Siberia, are few, and these savage; low in stature, and of an ugly appearance, scarcely resembling any thing human. They live upon the raw flesh of whales, bears, foxes, &c. and go muffled up in skins, the hairy sides next their bodies. In these inhospitable regions, their nights (as may be seen in the table of climates in the Introduction) are from one to six months, and the earth bound up in impenetrable snow; so that the miserable inhabitants live under ground great part of the year. Again, when the sun makes his appearance, they have a day of equal length.

All that vast tract on the back of the British settlements, from Canada and the lakes to the Pacific Ocean, which washes America on the west, is perfectly unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate
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and situation of the country, it is supposed to be fruitful; it is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom used to resort to the great fair of Montreal, even from the distance of 1000 miles, when that city was in the hands of the French.

In South America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and bounded by the river Oronoque on the north, and the Amazones on the south, is unknown, except a slip along the coast, where the French at Cayenne and the Dutch at Surinam, have made some settlements; which, from the unhealthfulness of the climate, almost under the equator, and other causes, can hardly be extended any considerable way back.

The country of Amazonia, so called from the great river of that name, has never been thoroughly discovered, though it is situated between the European colonies of Peru and Brazil, and every where navigable by means of that great river and its branches. Some attempts have been made by the Spaniards and Portuguese, but being always attended with vast difficulties, so that few of the adventurers ever returned back, and no gold being found in the country as they expected, no European nation has hitherto made any settlement there.

Patagonia, at the southern extremity of America, is sometimes described as part of Chili; but as neither the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies here, it is almost unknown, and is generally represented as a barren inhospitable country. And here in $52\frac{1}{2}$ deg. south lat. we fall in with the freights of Magellan, having Patagonia, on the north, and the islands of Terra del Fuego, on the south. These freights extend from east to west 110 leagues, but the breadth in some places falls short of one. They were first discovered by Magellan, a Portuguese in the service of Spain, who sailed through them, in the year 1520, and thereby discovered a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been since considered as the first navigator that sailed round the world; but having lost his life in a skirmish with some Indians before the ship's return to Europe, the honour of being the first circum-navigator has been disputed in favour of the brave Sir Francis Drake, who in 1574 passed the same freight in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the cape of Good-Hope. In 1616, La Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the southward of these straits, discovered, in lat. $54\frac{1}{2}$, another passage, since known by the name of Straits La Maire, and this passage, which has been generally preferred by succeeding navigators, is called doubling capé Horn.

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Horn. The author of Anson's voyage, however, from fatal experience, advises mariners to keep clear of these freights and islands, by running down to 61 or 62 deg. south lat. before they attempt to set their face westward, towards the South-Seas; but the extreme long nights and intense cold in those latitudes, render that passage practicable only in the months of January and February, which there is the middle of summer.

I N A S I A.

TOWARDS the north-east, are Yesso, Kamtschatska, and other countries or islands, which the Russians are daily discovering, but are imperfectly known even to that court, and supposed to be joined to North-America, or very near that part of the globe.

Below the Molucca isles, in the East-Indies, are New-Guinea, Carpentaria, New Holland, Dieman's Land, and, a little farther, New Zealand; regions discovered by the Dutch and English about the middle of the last century, and are supposed to be a vast continent, entirely separated from Asia or America; but our knowledge of them, even at this time, is very imperfect, our navigators having only sailed along the coasts, which stretch from the equator to 44 deg. of south lat. by whom we learn that the natives are black, go naked, and in some places are very numerous.

Besides these countries, the Europeans are daily making discoveries of islands that are scattered up and down the Pacific ocean; and it is generally believed that there are many large tracts of land towards the south-pole, of which at present we know nothing.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulphs, Bays, Streights, Capes, and other remarkable Places in the known World. Collected from the most authentic Charts, Maps and Observations.

| Towns. | Provinces. | Countries. | Quart. | Latitude. | Long. |
|-----------------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------|--------------------|-----------|
| | | | | D. M. | D. M. |
| A Berdeen, | Aberdeenshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 57-22N. | 1-40W. |
| Acapulco, | Mexico, | North | Amer. | 17-10N. | 101-40W. |
| Adriatic Sea, or | between | Italy & Turkey, | Europe, | Mediterranean Sea. | |
| G. of Venice, | | | | | |
| Adrianople, | Romania, | Turkey, | Europe | 42-00N. | 26-30 E. |
| Agra, | Agra, | East India, | Asia | 26-43N. | 76-30 E. |
| Air, | Airshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-30N. | 4-35W. |
| Aleppo, | Syria, | Turkey, | Asia | 35-42N. | 37-24 E. |
| Alexandria, | Lower Egypt, | Turkey, | Africa | 31-10N. | 30-19 E. |
| Albany, | New York, | North | Amer. | 42-48N. | 73-30W. |
| ALGIERS, | Algiers, | Barbary, | Africa | 36-50N. | 3-16 E. |
| Amboyna, | Amboyna Isle, | East India, | Asia | 4-25 S. | 127-25 E. |
| AMSTERDAM, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-23N. | 5-04 E. |
| Annapolis, | Nova Scotia, | North | Amer. | 45-00N. | 64-00W. |
| ANNAPOLIS, | Maryland, | North | Amer. | 39-00N. | 76-50W. |
| Antioch, | Syria, | Turkey, | Asia | 36-30N. | 32-46 E. |
| Antwerp, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-13N. | 4-29 E. |
| Archipelago, | Islands of | Greece, | Europe, | Mediterranean Sea. | |
| Archangel, | Dwina, | Russia, | Europe | 64-30N. | 40-30 E. |
| Astracan, | Astracan, | Russia, | Asia | 47-00N. | 52-00 E. |
| Athens, | Achaia, | Turkey, | Europe | 37-58N. | 24-05 E. |
| Atlantic Ocean, | separates | Eu. Asia, Afr. | from America | | |
| AVA, | Ava, | East India, | Asia | 20-20N. | 95-30 E. |
| B AY of Biscay | Coast of | France, | Europe, | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| — of Beng. | Coast of | India, | Asia, | Indian Ocean. | |
| Baltic Sea, | between | Ger. & Swed. | Europe, | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Baldivia, | Chili, | South | Amer. | 39-35 S. | 81-10W. |
| Balbec, | Syria, | Turkey, | Asia | 33-40N. | 37-00 E. |
| Barcelona, | Catalonia, | Spain, | Europe | 42-26N. | 2-18 E. |
| Bastia, | Corfica Isle, | Italy, | Europe | 42-20N. | 9-40 E. |
| Bath, | Somerfetshire, | England, | Europe | 51-27N. | 2-32W. |
| Bagdat, | Eyraca Arab. | Turkey, | Asia | 33-40N. | 45-00 E. |
| Bassora, | Eyraca Arab. | Turkey, | Asia | 30-45N. | 48-00 E. |
| BATAVIA, | Java Isle, | East India, | Asia | 6-00 S. | 107-00 E. |
| BAZIL, | Bazil, | Switzerland, | Europe | 47-40N. | 7-40 E. |
| Belfast, | Ulster, | Ireland, | Europe | 54-39N. | 6-30W. |
| Bender, | Bessarabia, | Turkey, | Europe | 46-40N. | 29-00 E. |
| BERGEN, | Bergen, | Norway, | Europe | 60-10N. | 5-40 E. |
| BERLIN, | Brandenburg, | Germany, | Europe | 52-33N. | 13-32 E. |
| Bern, | Bern, | Switzerland, | Europe | 47-00N. | 7-20 E. |
| Berwick, | Berwick, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-48N. | 1-45W. |
| Belgrade, | Servia, | Turkey, | Europe | 45-00N. | 21-20 E. |
| Bencoolen, | Sumatra Isle, | East India, | Asia | 3-55 S. | 101-00 E. |
| Bilboa, | Biscay, | Spain, | Europe | 43-26N. | 3-18W. |
| Birmingham, | Warwickshire, | England, | Europe | 52-30N. | 1-50W. |

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A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE, &c. 483

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D. M.
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01-40W.
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26-30 E.
06-30 E.
4-35 W.
37-24 E.
30-19 E.
73-30W.
3-16 E.
27-25 E.
5-04 E.
64-00W.
76-50W.
32-46 E.
4-29 E.
Sea.
40-30 E.
52-00 E.
24-05 E.

95-30 E.
Ocean.
cean.
Ocean.
81-10W.
37-00 E.
2-18 E.
9-40 E.
2-32 W.
45-00 E.
48-00 E.
07-00 E.
7-40 E.
6-30W.
29-00 E.
5-40 E.
13-32 E.
7-20 E.
1-45W.
21-20 E.
01-00 E.
3-18W.
1-50W.

| <i>Towns.</i> | <i>Provinces.</i> | <i>Countries.</i> | <i>Quart.</i> | <i>Latitude.</i> | <i>Long.</i> |
|------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------|------------------|--------------|
| | | | | D. M. | D. M. |
| Bombay, | Bombay Isle, | East India, | Asia | 19-00N. | 71-30 E. |
| Bokharia, | Ubec | Tartary, | Asia | 39-15N. | 67-00 E. |
| Bourdeaux, | Guienne, | France, | Europe | 44-50N. | 00-38W. |
| Borroughthon- nefs, | Linlithgowfh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-58N. | 3-44W. |
| Boston, | Lincolnshire, | England, | Europe | 53-10N. | 00-25 E. |
| BOSTON, | Massachusetts, | New England, | Amer. | 42-20N. | 70-40W. |
| Breda, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-40N. | 4-40 E. |
| Bret, | Bretany, | France, | Europe | 48-23N. | 4-25W. |
| Bremen, | Low. Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 53-25N. | 8-20 E. |
| BRESLAU, | Silesia, | Bohemia, | Europe | 51-15N. | 16-50 E. |
| Bristol, | Somerfetshire, | England, | Europe | 51-33N. | 2-40W. |
| British Sea, | between | Brit. & Germ. | Europe, | Atlantic | Ocean. |
| Black, or | Turkey in | Europe and | Asia. | | |
| Euxine Sea, | | | | | |
| BRUSSELS, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-50N. | 4-06 E. |
| Bruges, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-16N. | 3-05 E. |
| Brunfwick, | Low. Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 52-30N. | 10-30 E. |
| Buda, | Lower | Hungary, | Europe | 47-40N. | 19-20 E. |
| BURLINGTON, | Jersey, | North | Amer. | 40-08N. | 75-00W. |
| B U E N O S | La Plata, | South | Amer. | 34-35 S. | 57-54W. |
| A Y R E S, | | | | | |
| C A I R O, | Lower | Egypt, | Africa | 30-00N. | 32-00 E. |
| Cagliari, | Sardinia, | Italy, | Europe | 39-25N. | 9-38 E. |
| CACHAO, | Tonquin, | East India, | Asia | 21-30N. | 105-00 E. |
| Calais, | Picardy, | France, | Europe | 50-58N. | 1-54 E. |
| Cambletown, | Argylefhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-30N. | 5-40W. |
| Cambridge, | Cambridgesh. | England | Europe | 52-15N. | 00-05 E. |
| Cadiz, | Andalulia, | Spain, | Europe | 36-33N. | 6-01W. |
| Calcutta, | Bengal, | East India, | Asia | 22-00N. | 87-00 E. |
| Canterbury, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 51-16N. | 1-15 E. |
| Candia, | Candy Island, | Turkey, | Asia | 35-19N. | 25-23 E. |
| CANTON, | Canton, | China, | Asia | 23-14N. | 113-06 E. |
| CAMBODIA, | Siam, | East India, | Asia | 13-30N. | 105-00 E. |
| Carlisle, | Cumberland, | England, | Europe | 54-47N. | 2-35W. |
| Carthage ruins, | Tunis, | Barbary, | Africa | 36-30N. | 9-00 E. |
| CARTHAGENA | Terra Firma, | South | Amer. | 10-28N. | 77-06W. |
| Cardigan, | Cardiganshire, | Wales, | Europe | 52-10N. | 4-38W. |
| Candy, | Ceylone I. | East India, | Asia | 7-54N. | 79-00 E. |
| Caspian Sea, | Ruffian | Tartary, | Asia. | | |
| Cassel, | Hefte-Caffel, | Germany, | Europe | 51-20N. | 9-20 E. |
| Cape Clear, | Cork, | Ireland, | Europe | 51-10N. | 9-40W. |
| — Finiftere, | Galiccia, | Spain, | Europe | 43-12N. | 10-05W. |
| — Vincent, | Algarve, | Portugal, | Europe | 36-53N. | 9-06W. |
| — Verd, | | Negroland, | Africa | 14-43N. | 17-20W. |
| — of | Hottentots, | Calfraria, | Africa | 34-07 S. | 19-35 E. |
| Good Hope, | | | | | |
| — Comorin, | Hither India, | Mogul Empire, | Asia | 7-50N. | 77-30 E. |
| — Florida, | East Florida, | North | Amer. | 24-57N. | 80-30W. |
| — Horn, | Delfuego Ifle, | South | Amer. | 56-35 S. | 79-55W. |
| Cattegat Sea, | between | Swed. & Denm. | Europe | Atlantic | Ocean. |
| Ceuta, | Fez | Morocco, | Africa | 35-54N. | 6-30W. |

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| Towns. | Provinces. | Countries. | Quart. | Latitude. D. M. | Long. D. M. |
|--|-----------------|-----------------|---------|--------------------|----------------|
| Chester, | Cheshire, | England, | Europe | 53-15N. | 3-00W. |
| C H A R L E S T O W N, | South Carolina | North | Amer. | 32-45N. | 79-12W. |
| C'ita Vecch. | Pope's Territ. | Italy, | Europe | 42-05N. | 12-30 E. |
| C O P E N H A G E N | Zealand Isle, | Denmark, | Europe | 55-41N. | 12-50 E. |
| Cork, | Munster, | Ireland, | Europe | 51-49N. | 8-40W. |
| Coventry, | Warwickshire, | England, | Europe | 52-25N. | 1-25W. |
| C O N S T A N T I - N O P L E, | Romania, | Turkey, | Europe | 41-00N. | 28-56 E. |
| Constance, | Swabia, | Germany, | Europe | 47-37N. | 9-12 E. |
| Corinth, | Morea, | Turkey, | Europe | 37-50N. | 23-00 E. |
| Cracow, | Little Poland, | Poland, | Europe | 50-00N. | 19-30 E. |
| Curassou, | Curassou Isle, | West India, | Amer. | 11-56N. | 68-20W. |
| Cusco, | Peru, | South | Amer. | 12-25 S. | 70- 0W. |
| D Amascus, | Syria, | Turkey, | Asia | 33-15N. | 37-20 E. |
| Dantzic, | Polish Prussia, | Poland, | Europe | 54-22N. | 18-36 E. |
| Dacca, | Bengal, | East India, | Asia | 23-30N. | 89-20 E. |
| D E L L Y, | Delly, | East India, | Asia | 29-00N. | 76-30 E. |
| Delft, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-06N. | 4-05 E. |
| Derbent, | Dagistan, | Persia, | Asia | 41-40N. | 50-30 E. |
| Derby, | Derbyshire, | England, | Europe | 52-58N. | 1-30W. |
| Derry, | Ulster, | Ireland, | Europe | 54-52N. | 7-40W. |
| Dieu, | Malabar, | East India, | Asia | 21-37N. | 69-30 E. |
| Dover, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 51-08N. | 1-25 E. |
| D R E S D E N, | Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 51-00N. | 13-36 E. |
| Dundee, | Forfar, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-26N. | 2-48W. |
| D U B L I N, | Leinster, | Ireland, | Europe | 53-20N. | 6-28W. |
| Durham, | Durham, | England, | Europe | 54-48N. | 1-25W. |
| Dumbarton, | Dumbartonsh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-54N. | 4-20W. |
| Dunkirk, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-00N. | 2-20 E. |
| Dunbar, | Haddington, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-58N. | 2-25W. |
| Dumfries, | Dumfriesshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-08N. | 3-25W. |
| E Ngl. Chan. | between | Engl. & France, | Europe, | Atlantic | Ocean. |
| Ephesus, | Natolia, | Turkey, | Asia | 38-01N. | 27-53 E. |
| E D I N B U R G H, | Edinburghsh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-58N. | 3-00W. |
| Elbing, | Prussia, | Poland, | Europe | 54-15N. | 20-00 E. |
| Embsen, | Lower | Germany, | Europe | 53-25N. | 7-10 E. |
| Ethiopian Sea, | Coast of | Guinea, | Africa, | Atlantic | Ocean. |
| Exeter, | Devonshire, | England, | Europe | 50-44N. | 3-30W. |
| F Alkirk, | Stirling, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-58N. | 3-48W. |
| Falmouth, | Cornwall, | England, | Europe | 50-10N. | 5-20W. |
| Fez, | Fez, | Morocco, | Africa | 33-30N. | 6-00W. |
| Ferrol, | Gallicia, | Spain, | Europe | 43-30N. | 8-40W. |
| F L O R E N C E, | Tu. cany, | Italy, | Europe | 43-30N. | 12-15 E. |
| Fort St. David, | Coromandel, | East India, | Asia | 12-05N. | 80-55 E. |
| G eneva, | Geneva, | Switzerland, | Europe | 46-20N. | 6-00 E. |
| G E N O A, | Genoa, | Italy, | Europe | 44-25N. | 9-00 E. |
| Ghent, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-00N. | 3-36 E. |
| Gibraltar, | Andalusia, | Spain, | Europe | 36-00N. | 6-00W. |
| Glasgow, | Lanerkshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-50N. | 4-05W. |
| Gloucester, | Gloucestersh. | England, | Europe | 51-50N. | 2-16W. |
| Goa, | Malabar, | East India, | Asia | 15-31N. | 74-20 E. |

Towns.

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 — Veni
 — Orm
 — Persia
 — St. L
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 Hamb
 Hellepont
 Hallifax,
 HALLIFA
 Hanover,
 Havannah
 Haerlem,
 Hughly,
 Hereford,
 Hull,
 Hudson's I
Isthmus
 of Sug
 — Cori
 — Pana
 — Mala
JEDDO,
JERUSAL
 Indian Oc
 Inverness,
 Irish Sea,
ISPAHAN,
 Ivica,
KElso,
 Kilmar
 Kinfales,
KINGSTO
KONINGS
LAncast
 Levant
 Lahor,
 Leith,
 Leeds,
 Leyden,
 Leipsic,
 Leicester,
 Linlithgo
 Lincoln,
 Lille,

OF REMARKABLE PLACES. 485

| <i>Long.</i> | <i>Towns.</i> | <i>Provinces.</i> | <i>Countries.</i> | <i>Quart.</i> | <i>Latitude.</i> | <i>Long.</i> |
|--------------|---------------------|--------------------|-------------------|---------------|--------------------|--------------|
| <i>D. M.</i> | | | | | <i>D. M.</i> | <i>D. M.</i> |
| 3-00W. | Gombroon, | Farsistan, | Persia, | Asia | 27-30N. | 57-25 E. |
| 79-12W. | Gottenburg, | Gothland, | Sweden, | Europe | 58-00N. | 11-30 E. |
| 12-30 E. | Greenock, | Renfrewshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-52N. | 4-22W. |
| 12-50 E. | Guam, | Landrone Isles, | East India, | Asia | 14-00N. | 140-30 E. |
| 8-40W. | G. of Bothnia, | Coast of | Sweden, | Europe, | Baltic Sea. | |
| 1-25W. | — Finland, | between | Swed. & Ruf. | Europe, | Baltic Sea. | |
| 28-56 E. | — Venice, | between | Italy & Turk. | Europe, | Mediterr. Sea. | |
| 9-12 E. | — Ormus, | between | Persia & Arab. | Asia, | Indian Ocean. | |
| 23-00 E. | — St. Lawr. | Coast of | Persia & Arab. | Asia | Indian Ocean | |
| 19-30 E. | — Californ. | between | New Scotland, | N. Amer. | Atlantic Ocean | |
| 68-20W. | — Mexico, | Coast of | Calif. & Mexico, | N. Amer. | Pacific Ocean. | |
| 70-00W. | HAGUE, | Holland, | Mexico, | N. Amer. | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| 37-20 E. | Hamburg, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-10N. | 4-00 E. |
| 18-36 E. | Hellepont, | Med. & Bl. Sea, | Germany, | Europe | 53-41N. | 9-40 E. |
| 89-20 E. | Hallifax, | Yorkshire, | Europe and | Asia. | | |
| 76-30 E. | HALLIFAX, | Nova Scotia, | England, | Europe | 53-45N. | 1-52W. |
| 4-05 E. | Hanover, | Saxony, | North | Amer. | 44-4 N. | 63-15W. |
| 50-30 E. | Havannah, | Cuba | Germany, | Europe | 52-32N. | 9-35 E. |
| 1-30W. | Haerlem, | Holland, | Iland, | Amer. | 23-00N. | 84-00W. |
| 7-40W. | Hughly, | Bengal, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-20N. | 4-10 E. |
| 69-30 E. | Hereford, | Herefordshire, | East India, | Asia | 21-45N. | 87-55 E. |
| 1-25 E. | Hull, | Yorkshire, | England, | Europe | 52-06N. | 2-38W. |
| 13-36 E. | Hudson's Bay, | Coast of | England, | Europe | 53-45N. | 0-12W. |
| 2-48W. | I sthmus | joins | Labrador | N. Amer. | Northern Ocean. | |
| 6-28W. | of Suez, | | Africa to | Asia. | | |
| 1-25W. | — Corinth, | joins the Morea to | Greece, | Europe. | | |
| 4-20W. | — Panama, | joins | North and S. | America. | | |
| 2-20 E. | — Malacca, | joins Malacca to | Further India, | Asia. | | |
| 2-25W. | JEDDO, | Japan Isle, | East India, | Asia | 36-20N. | 139-00 E. |
| 3-25W. | JERUSALEM, | Palestine, | Turkey, | Asia | 32-00N. | 36-00 E. |
| Ocean. | Indian Ocean, | Coast of | India, | Asia, | Southern Ocean. | |
| 27-53 E. | Inverness, | Invernessshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 57-33N. | 4-02W. |
| 3-00W. | Irish Sea, | between | G. Brit. & Irel. | Europe, | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| 20-00 E. | ISPAHAN, | Irac Agem, | Persia, | Asia | 32-50N. | 51-30 E. |
| 7-10 E. | Ivica, | Ivica Isle, | Italy, | Europe | 38-50N. | 1-40 E. |
| Ocean. | K Elso, | Roxboroughsh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-38N. | 2-12W. |
| 3-30W. | Kilmarnock, | Airshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-38N. | 4-30W. |
| 3-48W. | Kinfaul, | Munster, | Ireland, | Europe | 51-32N. | 8-20W. |
| 5-20W. | KINGSTON, | Jamaica, | West India, | Amer. | 17-40N. | 77-00W. |
| 6-00W. | KONINGSBERG, | Prussia, | Poland, | Europe | 54-43N. | 21-35 E. |
| 8-40W. | L Ancafter, | Lancashire, | England, | Europe | 54-05N. | 2-55W. |
| 12-15 E. | L evant Sea, | Coast of | Syria, | Asia, | Mediterranean Sea. | |
| 80-55 E. | Lahor, | Lahor, | East India, | Asia | 32-40N. | 75-30 E. |
| 6-00 E. | Leith, | Edinburghsh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-58N. | 3-00W. |
| 9-00 E. | Leeds, | Yorkshire, | England, | Europe | 53-48N. | 1-24W. |
| 3-36 E. | Leyden, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-12N. | 4-05 E. |
| 6-00W. | Leipfic, | Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 51-20N. | 12-40 E. |
| 4-05W. | Leicefter, | Leiceftershire, | England, | Europe | 52-40N. | 1-05W. |
| 2-16W. | Linlithgow, | Linlithgowsh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-56N. | 3-30W. |
| 74-20 E. | Lincoln, | Lincolnshire, | England, | Europe | 53-15N. | 00-27W. |
| | Lifle, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 50-42N. | 3-00 E. |

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| Towns. | Provinces. | Countries. | Quart. | Latitude. D. M. | Long. D. M. |
|----------------|------------------------|----------------|---------|--------------------|----------------|
| Limerick, | Munster, | Ireland, | Europe | 52-35N. | 8-48W. |
| LISBON, | Estramadura, | Portugal, | Europe | 38-42N. | 8-53W. |
| LIMA, | Peru, | South | Amer. | 12-15 S. | 77-30W. |
| Litchfield, | Staffordshire, | England, | Europe | 52-43N. | 1-40W. |
| LOUISBURG, | Cape Breton I. | North | Amer. | 45-54N. | 59-30W. |
| LORETTO, | Pope's Territ. | Italy, | Europe | 43-15N. | 14-15 E. |
| LONDON, | Middlesex, | England, | Europe | 51-30N. | first Mer. |
| London Derry, | Ulster, | Ireland, | Europe | 55-00N. | 7-40W. |
| Lubec, | Holstein, | Germany, | Europe | 54-00N. | 11-40 E. |
| Lyons, | Lyons, | France, | Europe | 45-46N. | 4-55 E. |
| Luxemburg, | Luxemburg, | Netherlands, | Europe | 49-40N. | 5-40 E. |
| MAcao, | Canton, | China, | Asia | 22-13N. | 113-51 E. |
| Majorca, | Majorca Isle, | Spain, | Europe | 39-30N. | 3-03 E. |
| MADRID, | New Castile, | Spain, | Europe | 40-30N. | 4-15W. |
| Manchester, | Lancashire, | England, | Europe | 53-30N. | 2-22W. |
| Malta, | Malta Isle, | Mediterranean, | Europe | 35-53N. | 14-32 E. |
| MANTUA, | Mantua, | Italy, | Europe | 45-20N. | 10-47 E. |
| Malacca, | Malacca, | East India, | Asia | 2-12N. | 101-00 E. |
| Madras, | Coromandel, | East India, | Asia | 13-11N. | 80-32 E. |
| Manilla, | Philippine I. | East India, | Asia | 14-20N. | 118-00 E. |
| Marseilles, | Provence, | France, | Europe | 43-15N. | 5-20 E. |
| Medina, | Arab. Deferta, | Arabia, | Asia | 25-00N. | 39-53 E. |
| MECCA, | Arab. Deferta, | Arabia, | Asia | 21-45N. | 41-00 E. |
| Medit. Sea, | between | Europe and | Africa, | Atlantic | Ocean. |
| Mequinez, | Fez, | Barbary, | Africa | 34-30N. | 6-00 E. |
| MESSINA, | Sicily Island, | Medit. Sea, | Europe | 38-30N. | 15-40 E. |
| MEXICO, | Mexico, | North | Amer. | 20-00N. | 103-00W. |
| Milford Haven, | Pembrokeshire, | Wales, | Europe | 51-45N. | 5-15W. |
| MILAN, | Milanese, | Italy, | Europe | 45-25N. | 9-30 E. |
| MOCHO, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Asia | 13-40N. | 43-50 E. |
| MODENA, | Modena, | Italy, | Europe | 44-45N. | 11-20 E. |
| Montreal, | Canada, | North | Amer. | 45-35N. | 73-11W. |
| Montpelier, | Languedoc, | France, | Europe | 43-30N. | 3-50 E. |
| Montrose, | Forfar, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-34N. | 2-20W. |
| MOROCCO, | Morocco, | Barbary, | Africa | 30-32N. | 6-10W. |
| MOSCOW, | Moscow, | Russia, | Europe | 55-45N. | 37-51 E. |
| Munster, | Westphalia, | Germany, | Europe | 52-00N. | 7-10 E. |
| NANCY, | Lorraine, | Germany, | Europe | 48-44N. | 6-00 E. |
| Nanking, | Nanking, | China, | Asia | 32-00N. | 118-30 E. |
| NAPLES, | Naples, | Italy, | Europe | 41-00N. | 14-19 E. |
| NARVÁ, | Livonia, | Russia, | Europe | 59-00N. | 27-35 E. |
| Newcastle, | Northumber- land, | England, | Europe | 55-03N. | 1-24W. |
| Nice, | Piedmont, | Italy, | Europe | 43-42N. | 7-05 E. |
| Newport, | Rhode Island, | North | Amer. | 41-35N. | 71-06W. |
| NEW YORK, | New York, | North | Amer. | 40-40N. | 74-00W. |
| NINEVEH, | Affyria, | Turkey, | Asia | 36-00N. | 45-00 E. |
| Nottingham, | Nottinghamsh. | England, | Europe | 53-00N. | 1-06W. |
| Northampton, | Northamp- tonshire, | England, | Europe | 52-15N. | 00-55W. |
| Norwich, | Norfolk, | England, | Europe | 52-40N. | 1-25 E. |

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| <i>Long. D. M.</i> | <i>Towns.</i> | <i>Provinces.</i> | <i>Countries.</i> | <i>Quart.</i> | <i>Latitude. D. M.</i> | <i>Long. D. M.</i> |
|------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------|----------------------------|------------------------|
| 8-48W. | O lympia, | Greece, | Turkey, | Europe | 37-30N. | 22-00 E. |
| 8-53W. | O LMUTZ, | Moravia, | Bohemia, | Europe | 49-30N. | 16-45 E. |
| 77-30W. | Oporto, | Duoro, | Portugal, | Europe | 41-10N. | 9-00W. |
| 1-40W. | Ormus, | Ormus Isle, | Perfia, | Asia | 26-50N. | 57-00 E. |
| 59-30W. | Oran, | Algiers, | Barbary, | Africa | 36-30N. | 0-05 E. |
| 14-15 E. | Ostend, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-15N. | 2-45 E. |
| <i>first Mer.</i> | Oxford, | Oxfordshire, | England, | Europe | 51-45N. | 1-15W. |
| 7-40W. | P acific or | between | Asia and | America. | | |
| 11-40 E. | O riental O. | | | | | |
| 4-55 E. | Padua, | Venice, | Italy, | Europe | 45-30N. | 12-15 E. |
| 5-40 E. | Paisley, | Renfrewshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-48N. | 4-08W. |
| 13-51 E. | P ALERMO, | Sicily Isle, | Mediterranean, | Europe | 38-30N. | 13-43 E. |
| 3-03 E. | Palmyra, | Syria, | Turkey, | Asia | 33-00N. | 39-00 E. |
| 4-15W. | P ANAMA, | Darien, | Terra Firma, | Amer. | 8-50N. | 81-52W. |
| 2-22W. | P ARIS, | Isle of France, | France, | Europe | 48-50N. | 2-25 E. |
| 14-32 E. | P ARMA, | Parmesau, | Italy, | Europe | 44-45N. | 10-51 E. |
| 10-47 E. | Patna, | Bengal, | East India, | Asia | 25-45N. | 83-00 E. |
| 101-00 E. | P EGU, | Pegu, | East India, | Asia | 17-00N. | 97-00 E. |
| 80-32 E. | Pekin, | Pekin, | China, | Asia | 40-00N. | 116-28 E. |
| 18-00 E. | Pembroke, | Pembrokeshire, | Wales, | Europe | 51-45N. | 4-50W. |
| 5-20 E. | Penzance, | Cornwall, | England, | Europe | 50-08N. | 6-00W. |
| 39-53 E. | P ENSACOLA, | West Florida, | North | Amer. | 30-22N. | 87-20W. |
| 41-00 E. | Perth, | Perthshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-22N. | 3-12W. |
| O cean. | Perthamboy, | New York, | North | Amer. | 40-30N. | 74-20W. |
| 6-00 E. | Persepolis, | Irac Agem, | Perfia, | Asia | 30-30N. | 54-00 E. |
| 15-40 E. | P ETERSBURG, | Ingria, | Russia, | Europe | 60-00N. | 30-25 E. |
| 03-00W. | P HILADELPHIA | Pennsylvania, | North | Amer. | 40-00N. | 75-20W. |
| 5-15W. | Pifa, | Tuscany, | Italy, | Europe | 43-36N. | 11-15 E. |
| 9-30 E. | P LACENTIA, | Newfound. Isle, | North | Amer. | 47-26N. | 55-00W. |
| 43-50 E. | Plymouth, | Devonshire, | England, | Europe | 50-26N. | 4-15W. |
| 11-20 E. | Plymouth, | New England, | North | Amer. | 41-48N. | 70-25W. |
| 73-11W. | Pondicherry, | Coromandel, | East India, | Asia | 12-27N. | 80-00 E. |
| 3-50 E. | Portsmouth, | Hampshire, | England, | Europe | 50-48N. | 1-06W. |
| 2-20W. | Portsmouth, | New England, | North | Amer. | 43-10N. | 70-20W. |
| 6-10W. | Porto Bello, | Darien, | Terra Firma, | Amer. | 10-00N. | 82-00W. |
| 37-51 E. | Port l'Orient, | Bretany, | France, | Europe | 47-42N. | 3-15W. |
| 7-10 E. | Port Royal, | Jamaica Isle, | West India, | Amer. | 18-00N. | 77-00W. |
| 6-00 E. | Potosi, | Peru, | South | Amer. | 21-00 S. | 67-00W. |
| 18-30 E. | P RAGUE, | ————— | Bohemia, | Europe | 50-00N. | 14-20 E. |
| 14-19 E. | Preston, | Lancashire, | England, | Europe | 53-45N. | 2-50W. |
| 27-35 E. | P RESBURG, | Upper | Hungary, | Europe | 48-20N. | 17-30 E. |
| 1-24W. | Q UEBEC, | Canada, | North | Amer. | 46-55N. | 69-48W. |
| | Q uito, | Peru, | South | Amer. | 0-30 S. | 78-00W. |
| 7-05 E. | R Agufa, | Dalmatia, | Venice, | Europe | 42-45N. | 18-25 E. |
| 71-06W. | Ratisbon, | Bavaria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-56N. | 12-05 E. |
| 74-00W. | Revel, | Livonia, | Russia, | Europe | 59-00N. | 25-07 E. |
| 45-00 E. | Rheims, | Champagne, | France, | Europe | 49-14N. | 4-00 E. |
| 1-06W. | R HODES, | Rhodes Island | Levant Sea, | Asia | 36-20N. | 28-00 E. |
| 00-55W. | Riga, | Livonia, | Russia, | Europe | 56-55N. | 24-00 E. |
| | R OME, | Pope's Territ. | Italy, | Europe | 41-54N. | 12-45 E. |
| | Rosetto, | Egypt, | Turkey, | Africa | 31-10N. | 41-35 E. |
| 1-25 E. | Rotterdam, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-55N. | 4-30 E. |

488 A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE

| Towns. | Provinces. | Countries. | Quart. | Latitude. D. M. | Long. D. M. |
|------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------|--------------------|----------------|
| Rouen, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-26N. | 1-10 E. |
| S T. AUGUSTIN, | East Florida, | North | Amer. | 29-45N. | 81-12W. |
| — DOMINGO, | Hispaniola I. | West India, | Amer. | 18-20N. | 70-00W. |
| — Helena, | St. Helena, | Island, | Africa | 16-00 S. | 6-30W. |
| — JAGO, | Chili, | South | Amer. | 34-00 S. | 77-00W. |
| — Salvador, | Brazil, | South | Amer. | 13-00 S. | 38-00W. |
| Sallee, | Fez, | Barbary, | Africa | 34-00N. | 6-20W. |
| SAMARCAND, | Uibec | Tartary, | Asia | 40-40N. | 69-00 E. |
| Salisbury, | Wiltshire, | England, | Europe | 51-00N. | 1-45W. |
| SANTA FE, | New Mexico, | North | Amer. | 36-00N. | 104-00W. |
| SAVANNAH, | Georgia, | North | Amer. | 31-55N. | 80-20W. |
| Sayd, or Thebes | Upper | Egypt, | Africa | 27-00N. | 32-20 E. |
| Samaria Ruins, | Holy Land, | Turkey, | Asia | 32-40N. | 38-00 E. |
| St. George's Channel, | between | Engl. & Irel. | Europe, | Atlantic | Ocean. |
| Scarborough, | Yorkshire, | England, | Europe | 54-18N. | 0-10W. |
| Scone, | Perthshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-24N. | 3-10W. |
| Sea of Afof, | Little Tartary, | Europe & | Asia, | Black Sea. | |
| — Marmora, | Turkey in | Europe and | Asia, | Black Sea. | |
| — Kamf- chatka, | Coast of | Kamifchatka, | Asia, | Pacific Ocean. | |
| — Korea, | Coast of | Korea, | Asia, | Pacific Ocean. | |
| Shrewsbury, | Shropshire, | England, | Europe | 52-43N. | 2-46W. |
| Shields, | Durham, | England, | Europe | 55-02N. | 1-15W. |
| Sheerneys, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 51-25N. | 00-50 E. |
| Schiras, | Farifitan, | Persia, | Asia | 29-30N. | 53-00 E. |
| Seville, | Andalusia, | Spain, | Europe | 37-15N. | 6-05W. |
| SIAM, | Siam, | East India, | Asia | 14-18N. | 100-55 E. |
| Sidon, | Palestine, | Turkey, | Asia | 33-33N. | 36-15 E. |
| Smyrna, | Natolia, | Turkey, | Asia | 38-28N. | 29- 0 E. |
| Southampton, | Hampshire, | England, | Europe | 50-55N. | 1-25W. |
| Spaw, | Liege, | Germany, | Europe | 50-30N. | 5-40 E. |
| Sound, | between | Denm. & Swed. | Europe, | Baltic Sea. | |
| Stafford, | Staffordshire, | England, | Europe | 52-50N. | 2-00W. |
| Sterling, | Sterlingshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-10N. | 3-50W. |
| Stralsund, | Pomerania, | Germany, | Europe | 54-23N. | 13-22 E. |
| Stralburg, | Alface, | Germany, | Europe | 48-38N. | 7-51 E. |
| STOCKHOLM, | Uplandia, | Sweden, | Europe | 59 30N. | 18-08 E. |
| Streights of Dover, | between | Eng. & France, | Europe, | Eng. Channel. | |
| — Gibraltar, | between | Europe and | Africa, | Mediter. Sea. | |
| — Babel- mandel, | between | Africa and | Asia, | Red Sea. | |
| — Ormus, | between | Persia & Arab. | Asia, | Persian Gulph. | |
| — Malacca, | between | Malac. & Sumat. | Asia, | Indian Ocean. | |
| — Magellan, | in Patagonia | South | Amer. | Atlant. & S. Sea. | |
| — La Maire, | in Patagonia | South | Amer. | Atlant. & S. Sea. | |
| Sucz, | Sucz, | Egypt, | Africa | 29-50N. | 33-27 E. |
| Sunderland, | Durham, | England, | Europe | 54-55N. | 1-10W. |
| SURINAM, | Surinam, | South | America | 6-00N. | 55-30W. |
| SURAT, | Cambaya, | East India, | Asia | 21-10N. | 72-25 E. |

E

Long.
D. M.
1-10 E.
81-12W.

70-00W.
6-30W.
77-00W.
38-00W.
6-20W.
69-00 E.
1-45W.
04-00W.
80-20W.
32-20 E.
38-00 E.
Ocean.

0-10W.
3-10W.
a.
a.
Ocean.

cean.
. 2-46W.
. 1-15W.
. 00-50 E.
. 53-00 E.
. 6-05W.
. 100-55 E.
. 36-15 E.
. 29- 0 E.
. 1-25W.
. 5-40 E.
Sea.
. 2-00W.
. 3-50W.
. 13-22 E.
. 7-51 E.
. 13-08 E.
Channel.

er. Sea.
ea.

n Gulph.
Ocean.
& S. Sea.
& S. Sea.
N. 33-27 E.
N. 1-10W.
N. 55-30W.
N. 72-25 E.

